DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 235 971 RC 014 411

AUTHOR Wallace, Stephen T.; McCarty, T. L.
TITLE Navajo Changes--A History of the Navajo People = Dinetahgi Lahgo Ahoodzaa--Dine Bahane. Teacher's Guide. Fifth-Eighth Grade Navajo Bilingual-Bicultural Social Studies Curriculum.
INSTITUTION Rough Rock Demonstration School, Ariz. Navaho Curriculum Center.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Elementary and Secondary Education (ED), Washington, DC. Indian Education Programs.
REPORT NO ISBN-0-936008-23-7
PUB DATE 83
NOTE 54p.; For related document, see RC 014 410.
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS American Indian Culture; *American Indian Education; *American Indian History; American Indians; *Bilingual Education; Bilingual Instructional Materials; Elementary Education; Language of Instruction; *Learning Activities; Lesson Plans; Multicultural Education; Questioning Techniques; *Social Studies; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS *Navajo (Nation)

ABSTRACT

As an accompaniment to the grade 5-8 bilingual-bicultural social studies text focusing on Navajo history, the guide helps the teacher assist students through learning experiences designed to develop inquiry and social studies skills; reinforce Navajo and English literacy, communication, and math skills; and enhance appreciation and respect for Navajos. The guide contains general information on how to use the text and the guide itself, how to use language in the classroom, and how to evaluate student progress. It also contains detailed information on how to use the inquiry approach and on the role of questioning in the classroom. The teacher's guide is organized around chapters in the student text. For each chapter, the guide notes the purpose, the concepts, and the main ideas to be covered; lists the skills to be developed, the objectives to be achieved, the materials needed, and the suggested time for each activity; and describes numerous related teacher strategies and activities. At the end of the guide are reference lists for each chapter. (SB)

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Navajo Changes — A History of the Navajo People

Dinétahgí Łahgo Áhoodzaa — Diné Bahane'

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TEACHER'S GUIDE

Produced by
Title IV-B Materials Development Project
Rough Rock Demonstration School
Rough Rock, Arizona

RC014411

FIFTH-EIGHTH GRADE NAVAJO BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL
SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Navajo Changes — A History of the Navajo People

TEACHER'S GUIDE

Written. Illustrated and Produced by
TITLE IV-B MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

Written by
Stephen Wallace and T. L. McCarty

Editorial Assistance by
Regina Lynch

Illustrations by
Fred Bia, Andy Tsinajinnie, Hoke Denetsosie and Robert A. Roessel, Jr.

Navajo Curriculum Center
Rough Rock Demonstration School
Rough Rock, Arizona 86503

1983

ROUGH ROCK SCHOOL BOARD: Emmett Bia, Ernest Dick, Wade Hadley, Billy Johnson, Jim Phillips; Jimmie C. Begay, Executive Director.

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Rough Rock Demonstration School
Rough Rock, Arizona 86503

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ISBN No. 0-936008-23-7

FIRST EDITION

Printed in the United States of America by Imperial Litho/Graphics,
Phoenix, Arizona

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INTRODUCTION

This *Teacher's Guide* accompanies a bilingual textbook, geared toward the fifth through eighth grades, on Navajo history. The purpose of the *Guide* is to help you, the teacher, assist students through a series of learning experiences designed to develop important inquiry and social studies skills. The ultimate aim of these learning activities is to increase students' abilities to make generalizations about their society and the world at large. Simultaneously, the program reinforces Navajo and English literacy, communication and math skills, while enhancing appreciation and respect for Navajo values.

Navajo history includes a rich oral and written record, both of which are presented in the textbook. Chapter One of the book in particular, which concerns the Navajos' creation, is taken from stories told by medicine men which have been passed down from generation to generation. Throughout the book, statements by Navajo people, derived from interviews, complement textual material from "scholarly" or scientific accounts. This provides a balanced history and helps students explore their past through both oral and written channels. Students should be encouraged to compare and contrast the two forms of recording information. This can be accomplished by allowing them to conduct research in the library and outside the school during interviews with local resource people.

The approach outlined above, which combines the accounts of Navajo "culture bearers" with the written accounts of historians and scientists, makes history a vital and lively subject. Often, history is conceived as the memorization of dates and events, and no attempt is made to uncover the underlying causal relationships between people of a certain time period, and the events which impacted them and which they also influenced.

The course of studies presented here, however, is based on the *inquiry approach*. In this teaching methodology, students use historical subject matter as a data base from which to draw conclusions, make inferences and generalizations, and generate new ideas. Students are thus discoverers of historical relationships, and they are asked to apply knowledge gained during their discoveries to the solution of present and future problems. This is the philosophical core of this curriculum: that by learning about our past, we can develop skills to solve problems and meet our needs today and tomorrow.

This philosophy informs three primary ideas for the textbook. Primary ideas are the "big" thoughts or relationships which students should recognize and develop by the end of the course of studies. All lessons should be undertaken with these primary ideas in mind:

I. *When two cultures meet, both are changed.*
II. *When changes occur, people adapt their way of living to survive and cope.*
III. *Navajos have adapted to change in a way that emphasizes balanced, harmonious relationships between elements in their environment.*

To facilitate the development of problem-solving skills which reflect the ideas above, teachers should create a classroom atmosphere in which the subject matter is treated with respect. This can be achieved by modeling a key concept which is intrinsic to the textbook, the lessons in this *Guide*, and traditional ways of teaching: *k'é*, "right and respectful relations with others and nature." The principle of *k'é envelops this curriculum and in lessons, students are encouraged both directly and indirectly to apply this principle to their study of history.*

Using the Teacher's Guide

The *Teacher's Guide* is not a "cookbook" for teaching, but combines the elements of highly structured, "cookbook" activities with "guided" activities in which only the suggestion for an activity is provided. This approach allows the teacher creative freedom but includes enough detail for those occasions when the teacher lacks sufficient time to devise extensive lesson plans.

Before using the *Teacher's Guide* in the classroom, it will be helpful to read the material entitled, "Inquiry and the Role of Questioning." This is a slightly revised version of the outline on inquiry and questioning which first appeared in the *Navajo Bilingual-Bicultural Second Grade Curriculum* produced by the Native American Materials Development Center (NAMDC), in 1980. Since this Navajo social studies program spirals from the NAMDC curriculum, the inquiry method forms a vital core of this program. Reading the information on inquiry will help you develop sound questions and expand upon

the lessons in this guide. Through the inquiry process and teacher-assisted questioning, students will acquire numerous bilingual problem-solving skills. It is the philosophy of this social studies program that these skills are ultimately much more valuable than the ability to memorize sets of facts. In the long run, the problem-solving skills inherent in this curriculum will prepare students to function effectively in their increasingly pluralistic society.

It will also be helpful to read all the lessons and activities ahead of time so that you will have an overall picture of the program's direction and focus. Additionally, many activities requie some advanced preparation and special materials. These should be gathered well in advance of the lesson or activity.

The *Teacher's Guide* takes the following format. Each lesson is built around the ideas presented in a chapter of the student textbook. The lessons reinforce the concepts and generalization(s) of the chapter. Lesson activities extend concepts and generalizations to a broader context than is possible in the text, and develop skills and attitudes which are necessary for competent problem-solving. Finally, lessons enable you to present additional facts and other information which will broaden students' educational experiences.

Lessons are student-centered. Students are the main functionaries in each lesson. The teacher in most cases facilitates rather than controls the lessons. This reflects the inquiry approach, in which the student — rather than being "given" everything — is forced to ask questions, seek answers through experimentation and research, and then evaluate answers in light of the information. As students begin to develop these skills they will be enabled to make predictions and sensible responses rather than "wild" guesses and predictions. Initially, the teacher should not attempt to correct or redirect every inquiry, even though student responses seem completely wrong or misdirected. Through carefully selected questions and guidance, the teacher can help students discover reasons *why* their notions were incorrect. This is far more valuable than merely telling the student, "That is not right."

Using the Textbook

The textbook which accompanies this *Teacher's Guide* is an integral part of this program. It is necessary, therefore, to make a few remarks about its use. These are some suggestions for using the book and integrating it into the overall social studies program for the fifth and sixth grades:

1) In many lessons the text serves as the primary source for information which is to be used in solving a problem or developing an idea.
   a) In cases where the textbook serves as the primary source, teachers should allow ample time for reading and comprehension.[1] If students have difficulty reading, the teacher should develop a method for dealing with the problem. Taping the reading and allowing students to "read and listen," dividing the class into groups, enlisting the help of an aide, are some possibilities.
   b) Teachers should test the students for comprehension.
   c) The reading should occur during the lesson, after stating the objective of the reading to students.
   d) Students should be instructed to ask about terms, phrases, or any part of the material which they do not understand.
   e) Students should be instructed to take notes.

2) The textbook is also used as a source of background information for a lesson or activity, and to stimulate student research questions.
   a) In these cases teachers should prepare students by completely reviewing vocabulary, and posing a series of questions regarding aspects of the reading which they should "look for."
   b) Allow sufficient time for reading, as above.
   c) Don't use a "round-robin" approach for oral reading. Instead, ask a question, instruct students to find an answer in the reading, then read it aloud.

[1]If students' first language is Navajo, it is preferable for them to read each chapter or assignment first in Navajo. Use of the two languages, however, depends on the teacher and composition of the student body. See No. 4 of this section and the subsequent section entitled, "Using Language In the Bilingual Classroom," for further discussion of this topic.

3) The textbook is sometimes used as a means of testing the validity of students' conclusions.
   a) When used in this manner be sure students have read, as background information, those parts of the text which pertain to their conclusions.
   b) Give clues as necessary, but don't find the passage for students.
   c) Encourage the use of photographs, drawings, and diagrams.

4) The textbook is written in both Navajo and English. There is difficulty in this format depending upon your bilingual philosophy and that of your school. The use of both languages was included after considerable research and the interviewing of Navajo and other educators. While this approach requires some additional decision-making by teachers, it also provides greater flexibility in utilizing the text.
   a) If the lesson is conducted in Navajo, encourage students to read the Navajo version first. Do this by demanding that whatever is read be read in Navajo.
   b) Follow the same procedure if the lesson is conducted in English.
   c) If the answer to a question or solution to a problem does not require reading directly from the book, ask students to respond in the same language used as the medium of instruction for the lesson.

5) Above all, *be consistent*. If students are expected to read and develop their ideas in Navajo first, follow this procedure throughout the course of study. Likewise, if English is the most appropriate medium of instruction, require students to first read the text in English, conduct questioning sequences in English, and transfer information and ideas into Navajo as necessary. The point is that the teacher must use a *uniform approach* in presenting material throughout the program.

6) The textbook is an important tool. Allow the students ample opportunity to become familiar with it.

Using Language In the Bilingual Classroom

This social studies program demands a great deal of students. Critical thinking is not an easy task. Teachers, therefore, should use language in a manner which is appropriate for students and which will facilitate their ability to solve problems.

Many students in Navajo classrooms come to school with limited English language skills but with a solid foundation in hearing and speaking Navajo. English is generally the language of the classroom rather than the language of home and everyday use. This is particularly true for students in the lower elementary phases. Thus, it is generally preferable for lessons to be conducted (initially, at least) in Navajo. Transfer of the textual material and of skills and objectives can then be made into English.

The appropriate use of native and second languages is especially crucial in a social studies program such as this one, which emphasizes *values* and *affective skills* as well as other academic skills. It is the job of the teacher, as the students' guide and factilitator through this course of study, to present these values in a positive way. The Navajo language — the language spoken most frequently by students' parents, grandparents and friends — is of equal or (in many respects) greater value than the language of the dominant society. Moreover, students are learning about their society and its development in this program; their native language is, of course, an essential part of that social framework.

Nevertheless, English also plays an important role in the history and present state of Navajo society. This program is designed to help students recognize and *utilize* the bilingual balance of Navajo and English. By so doing, students will be on their way to becoming truly effective problem-solvers.

Many linguists have noted that all children acquire a set of *sociolinguistic* as well as *linguistic rules*. Linguistic rules concern the proper use of grammar and the grammatical structure of a language. These rules are often taught in school. At another level, children learn when and where to *use* language, and what is appropriate linguistically in different social settings. Much of this learning occurs intuitively, as children watch the behavior of adults. Inherent in the learning of these sociolinguistic rules is an understanding of the *social context* surrounding language use.

What is important for present purposes is the recognition that this social context is often very different to speakers of different languages. The sociolinguistic rules associated with Navajo, for example, may in many cases be in opposition to — or at least different from — those associated with English. This situation can present a problem in the presentation of lessons focused on *social skills*

and *inquiry*. This *Guide* and the text it reflects attempt to alleviate and, indeed, to capitalize on this problem. The aim of this program is not to force students to "choose" between Navajo and English as their *only* linguistic and sociolinguistic medium, but to enable them to use both linguistic codes to ask questions and solve problems. Thus, students come to understand, compare and respect the linguistic and sociolinguistic rules of two languages.[2]

Much of the success of an inquiry-based program depends on students' abilities to answer questions and to think and respond "on their feet." Students must be able to comprehend ideas presented in the text and lessons. More importantly, they must be able to create new ideas without overtly transferring them from one language to another. The ability to think and create in two languages provides an ultimate challenge to both teachers and students. The assumption of this curriculum, however, is that this ability comes *only after the child has achieved a high degree of critical thinking ability in the native language*.[3] The following suggestions are offered to facilitate bilingual critical thinking skills:

1) If students are dominant Navajo-speakers, present factual information first in Navajo. In a subsequent session, present the same information in English. If necessary, re-present the information in Navajo. (NOTE: Some information — such as that obtained from encyclopedias — may be available only in English. Such material may need interpretation in Navajo.)

2) Do not use Navajo and English in the same lesson. Separate students according to language abilities, if necessary.

3) For students whose primary language is Navajo, present most or all activities which require formulation of ideas, in Navajo. For English-dominant students present the activities in English and translate into Navajo as necessary.

4) Allow students plenty of time to respond when material is presented in the second language. It may be necessary to "edit" material in terms of quantity and degree of difficulty.

Evaluating Student Progress

This *Teacher's Guide* has a "built-in" evaluation system. Students' mastery of concepts and skills is determined by their ability to successfully complete the instructional objectives listed for each lesson. In addition, you may wish to devise a skills check-list which parallels the skills listed for each lesson. A weekly review of student notebooks will help you estimate how well students have understood concepts and ideas, and signals to them the importance you attach to this form of data organization. These checks, in combination with students' responses during group discussion, on written worksheets and essays, and in creative writing exercises which require the application of concepts, will provide a comprehensive inventory of each student's progress.

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[2]See Dell Hymes, "On Linguistic Theory, Communicative Competence and the Education of Disadvantaged Chilren," in *Anthropological Perspectives on Education*, ed. by M. Wax, S. Diamond and F. Gearing, pp. 51–66, (N.Y.: Basic Books, 1971); and Susan Phillips, *The Invisible Culture: Communication In Classroom and Community On the Warm Springs Indian Reservation* (N.Y.: Longman, Inc., 1982). Both Hymes and Phillips present an analysis of the native sociolinguistic rules which Indian children bring to the classroom.

[3]This approach has been used successfully at schools on the Navajo Reservation. See, for example, Paul Rosier and M. Farella, "Bilingual Education at Rock Point — Some Early Results," in *TESOL Quarterly*, Dec. 1976, pp. 379–390.

INQUIRY AND THE ROLE OF QUESTIONING

Paulo Freire called it the banking concept of education. Holt told us it was instrumental in the reasons "why children fail." Jerome Bruner warned us that it does not foster critical thinking. Some have termed it "teacher-dominated talk;" others have called it "teacher-centered;" still others have condemned it as the creator of "fact filled, non-problem solving students." It is nonetheless the most prevalent form of teacher-student interaction.

The statements above refer to the educational method in which teachers choose and completely direct the learning process in the classroom. Students are, to paraphrase Freire, the account into which teachers pour the currency of facts they have chosen as worthy of saving. In this process the student has no opportunity to make choices or explore, no chance to express opinions and often no means by which to develop new and challenging theories. The process is one which is the antithesis of inquiry and discovery.

Perhaps a case can be made for teacher-directed instruction in subject areas which require skills of computation and in which standard procedures are the ultimate goal. A teacher-directed approach may be the best method to use when students must learn to add, subtract, multiply, divide, construct coherent sentences, disect a frog or build a house. But social studies falls in none of these categories.

Social studies, because it is a study of people and how they live, work, relate and solve problems with other people, is one of the key academic areas. Through the study of the social sciences students learn what is expected of them as members of their society. They come to understand the processes and forces which shape their society and its values. Moreover, social studies generates an understanding of how these processes and forces shape other societies, thereby encouraging acceptance of differences and recognition of similarities which bind us all together as members of the human race. Most importantly, the ideas acquired and supported by a social studies curriculum help students solve present social problems and develop the means to solve future problems. Social studies skills are particularly important for students who must face these problems in a bilingual-bicultural or multicultural setting.

Social studies, then, can be a major factor in the acquisition of critical problem-solving and responsible decision-making skills. These goals cannot be accomplished, however, in classrooms where the teacher is the sole source of thought, where the teacher "force-feeds" students the pablum of facts and information, or in classrooms where the only expectation for students is the regurgitation of these facts. The development of effective problem-solving skills is instead facilitated in classrooms where students are expected to use facts and information to generate ideas, test these ideas, and generalize new ideas. In such classrooms teachers encourage curiosity and concern about human conditions, and the ultimate goal of the teaching/learning process is to encourage student *involvement*. This instructional style is known as *inquiry teaching*.

The process of inquiry contains the following elements:

1) the acquisition of sets of facts and information;
2) the organization and communication of facts and information;
3) the presentation and development of thought-provoking questions;
4) the development of tentative answers to these questions;
5) the testing of tentative answers;
6) the development of new answers, if necessary, and re-testing of new answers;
7) the development of conclusions as a result of testing, which either explain the reasons for the answers or predict what might happen in a new situation.

The elements listed above provide the foundation for the acquisition of *problem-solving skills*. Before elaborating further on the inquiry process, it is necessary first to discuss the nature of these skills.

A *skill* can be defined simply as an ability to do something well. In education we think of skills in terms of certain academic task areas. For example, math skills often include the ability to perform certain mathematical operations; reading skills involve the ability to decode and encode written symbols; language skills involve the ability to use words to create sentences which follow specified patterns. A common social studies skill is the ability to use maps. Skills are an important part of the academic process. In fact, much time and effort is spent teaching the skills of each subject area. Social studies is no exception.

But what are the social studies skills?

Educators have argued this question over many years, and no one has yet disclosed a universal answer. In general, each social studies program has its own set of skills. While this social studies curriculum follows the basic format of state and national guidelines, it has tailored its program to meet the needs of Navajo students. This combination of state and national directives with those generated by local needs, makes the Navajo social studies curriculum a valid and *viable* bilingual-bicultural approach.

Skills in this program can be divided into five major categories: 1) acquiring information, 2) organizing information, 3) communicating information, 4) utilizing information, and 5) social skills. Each of these skills is defined and discussed in the remainder of this section.

Acquiring Facts and Information

The acquisition of *facts* (statements such as, "The Navajo Reservation covers 25,000 square miles") and/or information (statements such as, "Navajos speak a language in the same linguistic family as Apaches") represents the lowest level of knowledge. Facts are nonetheless important building blocks for higher levels of knowledge (forming concepts and ideas), and for the development of generalizations. Facts and information help students see patterns, make comparisons, and obtain a sense of detail. Facts and information also illustrate how things change over time.

In acquiring facts and information, students develop a number of important skills that can be used in other subject areas. For example, as students sort through material to determine which bits of information are fact and which are opinion, they develop the skill of *evaluation* as well. They also increase their awareness of the best source of facts and information.

Fact acquisition plays a significant role in the inquiry process, and should be fostered in the social studies class. To do this, the teacher may select a combination of instructional strategies and student experiences, including lecture, reading, observing and listening. Each of these strategies is discussed in more detail below.

Lecture. The teacher is an essential source of information and in many instances, an "expert witness." Students should have direct access to this source. Through well designed lectures, teachers can give students important facts and information which might not otherwise be available. Lectures, however, should not become the only means of imparting information. To be effective, lectures must be well presented. Some suggestions for effective lectures follow.

1) Lectures should be brief, and used only when the teacher feels the need to control the amount and type of information presented.

2) Lectures should cover only one or two topics; they should be *focused.*

3) Lectures should cover material that is available *only* through this instructional strategy; that is, lectures should provide the necessary building blocks from which students can make their *own* discoveries.

4) Lectures should be interesting and utilize as many visual aides as possible including charts, photographs, slides, demonstrations, etc.

5) Teachers should prepare a concise outline for the presentation of the lecture. The outline should include:
   a) the objectives of the lecture;
   b) important points that will be brought out in the lecture;
   c) the sequence of presentation;
   d) a list of sources and/or visual materials to be used in the presentation.

6) The teacher should be well prepared for the lecture by:
   a) knowing every detail about the topic to be discussed;
   b) having all material available and ready beforehand;
   c) anticipating students' questions and possible problems in comprehension.

Reading. Student textbooks, supplemental texts, encyclopedias, magazines, pamphlets, etc., are another important source of information for students. In some cases students may have no other informational source available.

Teachers should encourage students to read textual materials beyond the level of comprehension. Social studies is an excellent agent for the elaboration of this skill. Through carefully selected and organized reading assignments followed by a question-answer session, teachers can assist students in making *interpretations* (inferring what the author meant on the basis of what he or she wrote), and in *applying* what is read (going beyond the author's statements and intentions to identify an idea or concept that can be applied to other circumstances). The following is a sample exercise that can be used to increase students' reading/interpretive abilities, and to evaluate progress in this area.

Sample Social Studies Reading Exercise[1]

Before assigning reading in social studies, read through the material yourself, then make a list of statements. One (or two) of the statements should include *literal comprehension* — a simple restatement of the textual material or a summary of the reading. Using the paragraph above as an example, the following statements reflect literal comprehension:

1) Reading assignments in social studies help students develop interpretive and applied reading skills.

2) When students can explain what they think an author meant by a statement he/she wrote, they are interpreting what was written.

3) Question and answer sessions at the end of a reading assignment help students develop interpretive and applied reading skills.

One or two of the statements in your list should be *interpretive*. Some interpretive statements taken from the same paragraph above, are:

1) Students can learn more in the social studies class than just social studies skills.

2) Reading assignments should do more than take up time.

3) Teachers should plan every reading assignment to ensure that students are acquiring and increasing reading skills.

Finally, one (or two) statements should represent the *application level*. The statements below are applications from the same paragraph:

1) Reading skills beyond the literal level are important to the development of critical thinking.

2) Social studies fosters skills development that will help students in other subject areas.

3) Social studies teachers are also reading teachers.

After making a list of statements, develop questions and answers such as the following:

Q1) Which three statements above summarizes what the author said in the article?
A1) Numbers ____ ____ and ____.

Q2) Which three statements above reflect what the author meant by what he said?
A2) Numbers ____ ____ and ____.

Q3) Which three statements above go beyond what the author said and could be used to make inferences about other circumstances and experiences?
A3) Numbers ____ ____ and ____.

Questions like these will help students in all areas of their school work, and will ultimately increase their ability to sort out the volumes of information they will encounter in both their academic and personal lives.

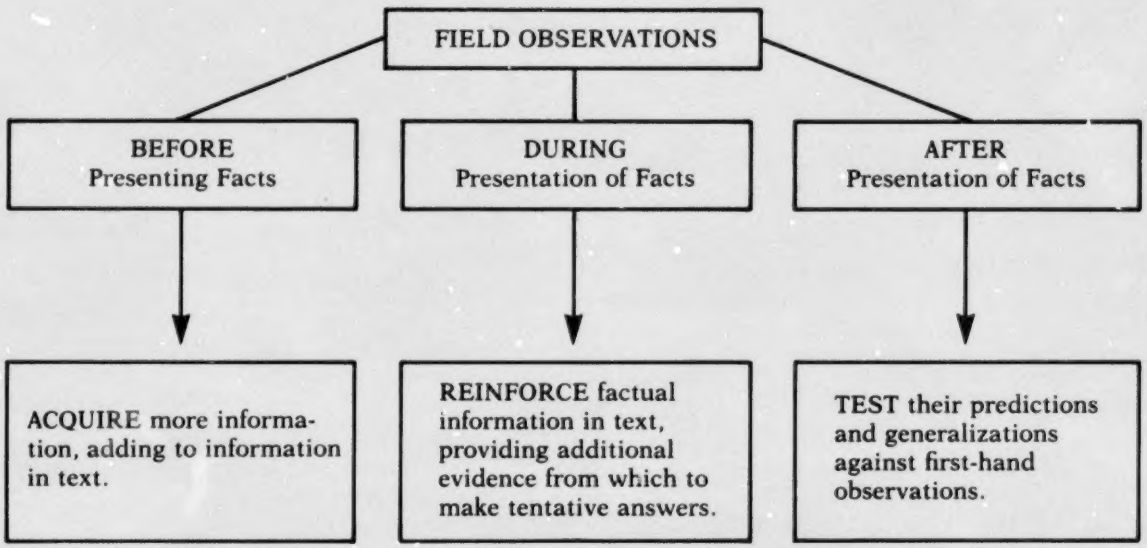
Observation. One of the most neglected student experiences is that of observation. Observation can be simply defined as the use of the senses to gather information. How often does the teacher, after watching a student, determine without questioning the student that he or she is ill, bored, afraid, or any of a hundred other things? How many times do we as individuals stand apart from a social interaction and, without knowledge of those involved, assess the situation? Observation can and should be an integral part of the social studies class. Students should be encouraged to use the powers of

[1]This exercise is adapted from H. Herbert, *Teaching Reading In the Content Area*. Prentice-Hall (1970).

observation they have acquired at home during everyday learning experiences — such as herding sheep or assisting with household activities.

Many of the opening exercises in this social studies program involve students in observation. The lessons are designed to help students individually or in small groups use their powers to see, hear, feel and/or taste to gather important facts and information. Occasionally (and this occurs more frequently later in the program), students are encouraged to compare their observations which they derive from "looking" at a set of data or from their past experiences, with the written description of others.

Observational activities also occur outside the classroom, during field trips and lectures from Navajo resource people. Some field trips should be planned *before* students receive facts contained in the text. Field trips may also occur at the *same time* as students are incorporating factual information from the text. Their field observations will reinforce the information presented in the text and through supplementary reading. Finally, some field trips should occur *after* factual information has been presented in class. This will allow students to *test* their predictions against the facts they observe. The chart below illustrates the rationale for planning field trips before, during and after presentation of factual information.


FIELD OBSERVATIONS
BEFORE
Presenting Facts
DURING
Presentation of Facts
AFTER
Presentation of Facts
ACQUIRE more information, adding to information in text.
REINFORCE factual information in text, providing additional evidence from which to make tentative answers.
TEST their predictions and generalizations against first-hand observations.

Listening. Like the access skills discussed above, listening is a skill that can and must be developed over time. It is a skill that, like observation, is acquired very early in life. Children learn to listen while being instructed at home. The Navajo child is often told to listen to the sounds of nature. Yet how often do we hear teachers complain that, "Chee doesn't listen"? It is perhaps unnecessary to point out that students often do listen, but not to what we want them to hear. This is due in part to poor listening habits and less than exemplary adult role models, and in part to our own perceptual blinders which help (or hinder) our ability to hear what we want to hear. It is also a consequence of our inability to sort out what is important from what is trivial. Research shows that the average listener remembers only a very small fragment of what he or she hears. Further, it has been demonstrated that only 35 percent of the message we receive from others is verbal. Time diminishes even this small percentage, so that in a week or two very little of what has been heard may be remembered.

Nevertheless, students *can* learn to listen and remember well. Activities which involve interviews of community members and which require making a report of the interview, help build listening skills. Small-group research with the added feature of summary reporting, helps students remember what has been said. Frequent classroom discussions with well established rules of courtesy, increase students' ability to work with others and emphasize the importance of listening to what someone else has to say. Short, but frequent summary recall questions (for example, "John, can you restate what Mary just said?" or, in the case of a lecture, "Bill, can you summarize the information I just gave you?") remind students of the need for attentive listening and help them to become aware of what facts are important.

The Organization and Communication of Facts and Information

During the typical school day students are faced with the acquisition of a multitude of facts and information. If, at the end of the day we were to "test" students on this information, how much of it would they remember? The answer is, probably very little. Why is this so?

One answer might be that, "Students never learned the information." Others would surmise, "Students didn't understand the information." Others might say, "They couldn't remember all the facts they were given." Each of these responses is true. Very few students (or adults) can learn everything they are taught (at least on the first try); very few students can understand everything they read, see, or are taught; and certainly very few can remember everything that passes through their brains.

What should teachers do in this situation? Should they limit the amount of information given to students? The answer is both yes and no. We as teachers often want to give students every bit of information we have acquired or think important. Our efforts are sometimes overdone and we "fill the cup to overflowing." On the other hand, there are some things which must be learned, experiences which must be had, information that must be gathered — and we owe it to our students to give as much of this as we can.

Inquiry, since it involves the *use* rather than the *storage* of information, is one means by which students can remember what they have learned. Yet even in some very exciting inquiry classes, students forget important bits of information. Therefore, a crucial skill necessary to produce clear-thinking, problem-solving individuals, is the ability to organize information so that it can be processed and utilized.

One basic organizing skill is notetaking and the keeping of records. Notetaking is especially valuable to students when the information they are gathering comes from sources which are not readily available for review, interviews, library research and extracurricular observations and experiments are examples of this type of information-gathering. Teachers initially can assist students by preparing record sheets and observation and experiment record forms. Examples of these can be found in many of the lessons in this guide. As with many other social studies skills, taking notes and keeping records have "spin-off" rewards. As notetaking is practiced the student is simultaneously increasing his/her skills in observation, listening and reading.

Chart-making, another type of note- and record-keeping, involves slightly more advanced skills since the student must not only write down information, but must also have a certain organizational scheme in mind. Charts are an efficient form for presenting and organizing information, and can take many forms. A number of different kinds of charts are utilized in this social studies program. Although a chart is technically something in which a number of facts, bits of information or statements are listed in columns under a specific heading, tables (which generally are lists of number facts associated with production, population, distance, etc.) can also be considered charts as they are used in this program. Graphs, which are defined as diagrams that show relationships and/or inter-relationships between sets of elements, are also considered charts here since they serve the function of organizing and communicating information.

An excellent way to provide students with practice in organizing information is through short, one-topic reports. These written exercises might contain a set of specific questions for students to answer with at least one question that requires a conclusion or generalization. Thus, students are "forced" to review and check their information. Oral reports also help students realize the importance or organizing information. Periodic short, one-topic reports are effective and productive exercises.

A final word of caution is in order. Students, no matter how organized or excited, cannot handle great volumes of information at once. Do not drown them in a sea of information, especially at the beginning of a task. Analyze your students' abilities to handle information and judge your assignments accordingly.

The Development and Presentation of Thought-Provoking Questions (Utilizing Information)[2]

The ultimate goal of any inquiry lesson is the answering of questions which will lead students to the solution of important problems. Students cannot accomplish this until they have witnessed examples of questions and had practice in answering them. Hence, the teacher plays an important role in this aspect of the inquiry process. It is at this point that the teacher becomes more than a facilitator; the teacher is a crucial "cog in the wheel."

The development and presentation of thought-provoking questions is a product of *critical thinking.* Probably the most distinctive difference between human beings and other animals is the fact that the human being is a critically thinking animal. Critical thinking is a process of using one's mind to record, analyze and interpret information. As with most skills, critical thinking is a *developmental process.* It is not learned all at once, but over time. What is important is that critical thinking skills can be *taught.*

The late Hilda Taba[3] and her associates at San Francisco State University conducted extensive research into this area of development and formulated the following assumptions about thinking.

1) Thinking involves an active transaction between an individual and the data with which he/she is working. Data becomes meaningful only when an individual performs certain "cognitive operations" on it ("cognitive operations = thinking").

2) The ability to think cannot be "given" by teachers to students. Effective thinking depends on the richness of content, the cognitive processes used, and the initial assistance provided in the development of such processes.

3) All school children are capable of thinking at abstract levels, though the quality of individuals' thinking differs markedly.

4) Precise teaching strategies can be developed which will encourage and improve student thinking.

Thinking (or cognitive) skills involve the ability to interpret information, develop concepts, and use information or facts to solve problems. Therefore, *cognitive strategies* aim at allowing students to systematically develop these skills. The strategies are of three kinds:[4]

1) **Developing Concepts:** In this strategy, students *list, group* and *regroup* a number of items and then *label* the groups.

2) **Developing Generalizations:** In this strategy, students make inferences and then generalize about the relationships they observe among various kinds of data.

3) **Applying Generalizations:** In this strategy students are asked to apply previously learned generalizations and facts to predict what might happen in a situation which is new but similar.

Each strategy is discussed more fully in the remainder of this subsection.

Developing Concepts. This strategy forms the basis for the cognitive skills. It is a necessary prerequisite for higher levels of thinking (forming and applying generalizations). Concepts are shaped by students as they participate in these types of activities:

1) *observing* their environment through pictures, stories, movies, music, etc.;

2) *identifying* and *listing* items from their observations;

3) finding reasons for putting the items from their list into logical *groups* (note that students are not limited to any precise grouping rationale; however, they must be able to defend their reasons for grouping as they do);

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[2]Much of the discussion in this sub-section is adapted from the *Navajo Bilingual-Bicultural Curriculum, Grade 2 Teacher Guide* produced by the Native American Materials Development Center, Albuquerque, NM (1980), pp. 469–486.

[3]See "References" for a more complete list of sources on Hilda Taba.

[4]Slightly modified from Hilda Taba *et al., A Teacher's Handbook to Elementary Social Studies: An Inductive Approach* (Second Ed.). Reading, MA: Addison Wesley (1971).

4) assigning a logical *name* or *label* to their groups.

During this process the teacher's role is one of asking precise questions. At all times the teacher must be careful to see that the student does the thinking. The teacher should not provide labels for students, but should encourage them to devise their own labels. Concepts formed in this manner are firmly embedded in the student's "concept library" and are used in later thinking development.

Developing Generalizations. The process here is similar to that of developing concepts. In this process students begin to:

1) look for elements from a number of examples with the same questions in mind; for example, they might be asked, "Why do people have families?"; they then look at samples from different groups of people (Navajo families and Apache families) and *compare* and *contrast* similarities and differences;

2) develop explanations for what they see; for example, students might explain the similar or different functions of Navajo and Apache families; this involves *making inferences* from data;

3) form conclusions by making statements about the evidence they have acquired; this involves *making generalizations.*

Developing generalizations is not always a precise 1-2-3 process, but it generally follows this outline. As with concept development, the development of generalizations should be guided. Children need this opportunity to proceed from learning facts (such as "Apache and Navajo families are both matrilineal") and developing concepts (such as family, needs, wants, etc.) to the most important human activity, using knowledge to solve problems.

Applying Generalizations. No amount of knowledge is worth anything unless it can be put to use. The purpose of any type of knowledge is to solve problems. After students have grasped a great deal of information and have had many experiences with the two preceding strategies, this strategy requires them to look at data in terms of generalizations they have made and predict behaviors or events that might occur. When a student is asked a question such as, "How would our life today be different if the United States lost the war with Mexico?" the student is required to apply a generalization. This strategy helps students organize and utilize their knowledge. Hopefully, this social studies skill will be transferred to other subject areas and in fact, to life itself.

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As mentioned above, thinking is a developmental process guided by the teacher. One of the teacher's major tasks in this process is questioning. *No teaching strategy or process is any better than the ability of the teacher to question.* While this is true, it is also true that asking the "right" questions is not an easy task.

Questions can basically be classified as *open* and *closed.* Both types of questions are useful. The choice of which type to use depends upon how the teacher expects students to respond.

Closed Questions. Closed questions are questions which have a right or wrong answer. They are closed because they do not allow students to expand on their answers. For example, "How many states are there in the United States?" is a closed question. This question has only one right answer; it allows only one person to answer correctly. The question requires no elaboration.

Closed questions usually deal with simple recall of facts. While this is necessary at times (for example, when you need to test comprehension of the text), they are of limited use in helping students develop thinking skills.

Open Questions. Open questions are questions which do not have a right or wrong answer. They are broad enough to allow flexibility in student responses. In addition, they allow a greater number of students to enter the discussion. A question like, "Why do you think there are 50 states in the United States?" allows for a number of possible answers, many of which might be correct. This type of question also offers students who have acquired added information the opportunity to use that information. For example, a student may have learned that Brazil is also divided into states and might be able to use that information to answer the above questions.

Open questions give the teacher the opportunity to create new learning experiences which might be suggested by the answers. For instance, if the teacher used the question above and two students came up with totally different answers, the teacher could use that as a basis for a research project.

The teacher would then ask each student, "Why do you think your answer is correct? What evidence do you have to support your answer?" This is *inquiry.*

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Throughout this curriculum, particular questioning sequences are either detailed or suggested. The following is an outline of the general form of these questioning sequences. For ease of discussion they are divided according to the general teaching strategy to which they relate.[5]

Sequence 1: Developing Concepts. This sequence of questions is usually used at the beginning of a series of activities; it should be used, however, any time a new concept is introduced or when the teacher wants to limit the range of concept definition. Sometimes it is used as part of other thinking skills strategies.

Listing Question

1) Díí lá ha'at'íí nidaashch'qą?
(What are some of the things that you see in this picture?)

This question encourages students to name (list items from their observations of a pre-selected sample). It also serves as a focus for discussion. A listing question limits the *type* of discussion without limiting the *amount* of responses.

Grouping Questions

1) *Díí nidahístídzooígíí lá háídíígíí t'ááłá' nidanídeeh?*
(Now that you have given a list, which of the items do you think belong together?)

This question encourages students to recognize common characteristics of the items in their lists.

2) Ha'át'íílá biniinaa t'ááłá' nidanídeeh danohsin?
(Why do you think these items belong together?)

This question encourages students to think about their reasons for grouping. It helps them establish and defend their reasons, which at first are probably arbitrary.

Labeling Questions

1) *Háílá díí ał'aa nidaashjaa'ígíí bizh' łá' yá íílééhgo yíighah?*
(Can anyone give me a name for this group?)

This question establishes the concept word. It helps to go from the concrete (the items) to the abstract (the word) that represents the sum of the items.

2) Háílá éí bizhí' yá ánáánéélééhgo yíighah?
(Can anyone give me another name?)

This question, not always necessary or appropriate, gives other students a chance to go from concrete to abstract and helps to establish the tentative nature of some concepts.

3) *Díí yízhí lá háídíígíí díí kojí dah shíjaa'ígíí yaa halné?*
(Which of these names do you think is better suited to the characteristics of the group?)

This question helps focus students on a common meaning to the label, and establishes a common term that can be understood by a greater number of people. As with the second question, it is not always necessary or appropriate.

Sequence 2: Developing Generalizations. This sequence of questions usually, but not always, follows Sequence 1. Sequence 2 is important in the inquiry process because the questions help establish methods for going beyond the data to understanding the relationships expressed in the organizing and main ideas.

[5]The questioning sequences have been adapted from Hilda Taba's "Cognitive Strategies." Specific sequences may differ slightly from these, depending upon the actual activities.

Focusing Question

1) *Ha'át'íish biniinaa át'é danohsin?*
(Why do you think this is so?)

This question defines the area of the problem. It gives students a clue to what they are looking for. This type of question is most appropriate before students are given data. Their answers usually are in the form of tentative guesses, especially if they are not familiar with the area under discussion. For example, "Why do people have families?" would be an unfamiliar area for many students.

Listing Questions

1) *Díí danóoł'í'igíí binahjį' lá ha'at'íí baa ádahonoozįį?*
(Now that you have seen examples of this, what did you notice?)

This question serves the same purpose as the listing question in questioning Sequence 1. It also helps students to organize their data into usable form.

2) *Díí hazhó'ó danół'į. Haalá yit'éego ał'ąą át'éego baa ádahonohsin?*
(What differences or similarities did you notice?)

This question serves as a source for explaining and comparing the different aspects of the data.

Inference Question

1) *Ha'át'íish biniinaa át'é danohsin? Haasha' yit'éego ádzaa'? Haashą' yit'éego ał'ąą át'é baa hólne?*
(Why do you think this is so? Why did this happen? How do you explain the differences?)

These types of questions serve as a source for drawing a conclusion in terms of the relationships students have seen in the data. It also helps to further organize the data they have acquired.

Generalization Question

1) *Ha'át'íish yaa halne' danohsin?*
(What does this tell you about _____?)

This question brings all of the data and guesses into focus. The students have to draw a conclusion about relationships. They are asked to interpret the data and information they have at hand.

Sequence 3: Applying Generalizations. Although generalizing is the highest order of thinking, generalizations are useless unless the student is able to use the generalization to predict from similar data, or to arrive at the solution to a problem. Questioning Sequence 3 helps students through this difficult process. It can also act as an evaluation of the depth of understanding students have developed through Sequence 2.

Problem Question

1) *Haash hodoonił danohsin, díigi áhoodzaago?*
(What do you think will happen if such and such happens?)

This question sets the focus. It establishes for students the generalization(s) that they must consider in solving the stated problem. This problem is usually a slight variation or paralleled version of the theme under study.

Evidence Questions

1) *Ha'át'íish biniinaa ákóhodoonił danohsin?*
(Why do you think that will happen?)

This question serves as the organizing question. Students and teachers are using the same process as in "developing generalizations" at this stage.

2) *Ha'át'íish bee nił bééhózin ákóhodoonił igíí?*
(What evidence do you have that this will happen?)

This question serves as the catalyst for data gathering. Students will have to put together generalizations, information, and facts in order to support their guess to the problem question (i.e., What do you think will happen if . . . ?)

Extension Question

1) *T'áá aaníí ákóhoodzaago shą' éí haahodooníił?*
(If it is true that this will happen if such and such happens, what do you think will happen next?)

This question, which appears in several forms throughout the student text, illustrates the extension of problem-solving beyond the one situation presented in the problem question.

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Important Things To Remember About Questioning. Teachers must remember the difference between open and closed questions and decide when each is required. A good general rule of thumb is: when you want to find out if students know a particular set of facts, the sequence of events in a story, or other descriptive information, use closed questions. On the other hand, *if you want to help students develop high levels of cognitive skills beyond the level of simple recall, use open questions.*

While closed questions are often too limited and restrict thinking, questions that are too broad such as, "What would you like to say about this slide show?" do not provide a focus for discussion. This is especially true for young people who have not had much experience with open questions.

Some questions may be too abstract and need preparation for discussion. For example, asking, "After seeing a slide show about Navajo culture, what do you think is a good definition of culture?" is far too abstract. It needs a series of focusing questions.

Teachers must be listeners. Listening to the students' answers gives teachers strong indications about the type of questions they are asking. For every question asked, the teacher must have an idea of the type of answer expected.

Teachers must be careful not to use questions which are really statements, corrective or controlling devices. Questions such as, "John, do you *really* think that dogs have two tails?" is actually saying, "John, your answer is incorrect." By asking such a question, the teacher is not allowing the student to discover for himself the correctness of his statement. A better question would be, "John, what evidence do you have that dogs have two tails?"

Teachers must be aware of the effects of *grouping students.* Generally, lessons which involve the discussion of questioning such as in the strategies discussed, do not work well with large groups (more than nine students). Committee work of any kind is better handled in small groups. Small groups allow for a great amount of interaction between students, students and teachers, and between students and materials. On the other hand, lessons or activities which involve the intake of information, exchange of information, or establishment of procedures, are often more time efficient and academically effective in large groups.

The Development of Tentative Answers (Utilizing Information)

Most teachers and testers evaluate a student's progress or attainment of objectives through the use of questioning. A student is considered to have "learned" if he/she is able to answer questions correctly or provide answers to questions which contain the facts, information, or ideas expected by the teacher or tester. In some instances this is appropriate and acceptable. In an inquiry lesson, however, this is not always appropriate or acceptable. Most often, questions in an inquiry lesson are designed to stimulate thinking, not answers *per se.* It is important, therefore, that students be given the flexibility to "create" answers to questions, not regurgitate.

It is hoped, of course, that eventually students will develop answers that are logical and meaningful and show the utilization of facts, information, and ideas; but initially it is necessary that they *explore* and *experience.* Hence, an important part of an inquiry lesson is the development of tentative answers to questions. Tentative answers are answers that are not right or wrong, but that are not beyond any hope of being even remotely correct.

Teachers must emphasize to each student the importance of his or her tentative answers. Teachers must encourage guesses. There must not be the slightest hint that the teacher considers an answer incorrect. At the same time the teacher must also emphasize that wild incoherent responses are not appropriate. Students can learn this process quite easily, and over time will begin to develop excellent guesses based on information they have gathered.

Testing of Questions (Utilizing Information)

There is an old proverb that says, "If you give a man a fish, he will eat for a day. If you teach him how to fish he will feed himself." Phrased differently the proverb goes, "If you tell a student an answer is incorrect and then give him/her the correct answer, the student will know the correct answer. If you ask the student to prove it, the student will be able to evaluate his/her own answers." The importance of requiring students to test their answers through research, review of facts and information, experimentation and other means, cannot be overemphasized.

Research, observation and experimentation are all the result of the need to prove tentative answers. This *Teacher's Guide* is designed to help teachers help students accomplish this most important task through review, well chosen research, observation and experiment. It is important at this point in the process that teachers observe the way students use information they have gathered, noting whether or not students do in fact utilize what they know rather than make more guesses. Teachers can do this by checking: 1) the sources of information used by students; 2) how well students have understood these sources; and 3) recall of vital facts. All are important evaluative methods to insure proper use and testing of tentative answers.

The Remaining Steps of Inquiry

Inquiry is not a linear process beginning at point A and moving to point Z. It is more analogous to a spiral beginning at point A and retracing numerous steps before it comes to point Z. One of these spirals occurs after the students have tested their tentative answers.

At this point, students must evaluate their responses, determining if the information supports their tentative answers. They move on to the formulation of conclusions: "Since my answer seems correct, then I feel that such and such will happen." This too must be tested. Students must re-test what they conclude against new and different situations. If their tentative answers prove incorrect they must form alternative answers and re-test these.

This may at first seem to be a frustrating exercise. As the students advance in their abilities, however, their initial answers become more and more precise and their conclusions more far-reaching — until eventually they are able to utilize them in very different circumstances. As a consequence, the generalizations they develop are significant and powerful, and can be used to explain many events they will face in the future. The generalizations can be used, also, to answer many other questions.

Social Skills

The social skills are those that involve primarily the *affective* (as opposed to the cognitive) domain. Social skills include the ability to communicate and interact effectively and appropriately with others: speaking, listening and participating in group activities. They also include important family and group values which reflect the moral character of a society.

It is at this point that the teacher's role as facilitator of the bilingual-bicultural curriculum becomes especially crucial. Teachers must assist students in acquiring the skills necessary to function in the language and sociocultural milieu of their home and community, as well as those of the dominant society. This can be accomplished in part by following the guidelines for language use contained in the introduction to this *Guide*. Appropriate teacher-modeling of language will provide students with a solid foundation for acquiring the *linguistic rules* (pronounciation, vocabularly, grammar, semantics) and *sociolinguistic rules* (knowing the appropriate social context for *using* language) of Navajo and English.

The development of social skills is also facilitated in class and small group activities which require listening to others, discussion and cooperation in tasks to meet common goals (e.g., research projects). Three key concepts in the text are *cooperation, sharing* and *interdependence*. These concepts should be reinforced by teachers — directly and more subtly — in every lesson that is taught. Students should be encouraged to *apply* these concepts in their classroom behavior, not only during social studies lessons but in all classroom activities.

CHAPTER ONE

The First Navajos

Lesson 1

Purpose

In the activities for this lesson, students are asked to respond to both closed and open questions regarding the Navajo creation story. These questions facilitate literal comprehension and application skills in more advanced cognitive tasks. After responding to questions, students are asked to compare and contrast elements in the Navajo story with those in other creation stories. In so doing, students make inferences and draw conclusions from information presented in the textbook.

Concepts

The following concepts are developed in this lesson:

Culture. For the purposes of this book, culture is considered to be all the things that people must do to meet their needs for survival and reproduction. This includes the way they live, their expressed beliefs and religious practices, language, material items (clothing, food, shelter, technology, etc.), and economic pursuits (herding sheep, farming, wage labor, etc.).

History. The oral and written record of past events involving a particular group of people.

Tradition. Tradition is integrally linked to both culture and history. The beliefs, experiences and events which make up a people's history are referred to as their *cultural tradition.* These elements of culture are passed down from generation to generation, often orally; they compose and influence a people's modes of thought and behavior.

Change. Nothing remains static. All living things are in a state of flux. Although the fact of change is constant (everything changes), the context, speed and degree of change vary greatly. Change occurs because of the interaction of living things with each other and with other elements in their environment.

Adaptation. Plants, animals and people are able to survive by using things in their environment to grow and reproduce. Many plants and animals can survive and reproduce only in certain environments. However, man, some plants and animals can survive in many types of environments because they can adjust their needs to changes in the environment. Man, through cultural activities, is able to change the environment to meet his needs. This ability of living things to (1) modify their activities according to environmental and/or cultural demands, and (2) modify the environment to meet their own needs, is called *adaptation.*

Main Idea

The main idea for this chapter reflects the primary ideas for the course of study. In particular, the following ideas are emphasized:

1. *When change occurs, people adapt their way of living.*
2. *The story of the Navajo creation, like other creation stories, exemplifies how Navajos changed their way of living to adapt to new survival needs.*
3. *The Navajo creation story sets many of the precedents for current beliefs and practices; in this way the creation story constitutes the core of our cultural tradition.*

Skills To Be Developed

1. Acquiring Information
   a) reading
   b) listening
   c) observation
   d) picture and map analysis
   e) library research
2. Organizing Information
   a) notetaking
   b) listing
   c) grouping
   d) labeling
3. Communicating Information
   a) oral communication
      - participating in class discussion
   b) written communication
      - notetaking
      - written reports
4. Using Information
   a) answering factual questions about the Navajo creation story
   b) using creation story to make inferences about why things are as they are today
   c) using Navajo creation story to draw conclusions about creation stories in general
5. Knowledge Gained
   a) factual information about size and location of Navajo Tribe
   b) identification of other Athapaskan groups
   c) concept development
   d) terminology for sites, places and events in Navajo creation story
   e) familiarity with creation stories of other culture groups
6. Map and Globe Skills
   a) locating significant sites mentioned in creation story
   b) finding common names for important sites in creation story
7. Social Skills
   a) cooperation in group discussion and research projects
   b) interacting with others
   c) modeling concept of *k'é*
   d) developing respect for Navajo and tradition

Objectives To Be Achieved

Upon completion of the activities for Chapter One, students will be able to do the following:

1. Locate the Navajo Reservation on a map of the United States.
2. Locate and describe other Athapaskan groups.
3. Recall significant events in the emergence of the Navajo people. Examples:
   a) important events in each of the underworlds
   b) reasons for leaving each of the underworlds
   c) creation of Holy People
   d) roles played by Holy People
   e) creation of ancestral Navajo clans
   f) theme of overcoming obstacles
4. Locate on a map the geographical sites mentioned in the textbook. Examples:
   a) place of emergence into the present world
   b) four (or six) sacred mountains

5. Use information from the text to answer factual (closed) questions. Examples:
   a) Which of the four worlds was inhabited mostly by black insects?
   b) What is the Navajo (English?) name for the northernmost mountain?
   c) In what underworld was corn created?
6. Use information from the text to answer open questions. Examples:
   a) Why are the sacred mountains important to Navajos today?
   b) Name one event from the version of the creation story you have read which is important today. Why is it important?
7. Compare and contrast elements in the Navajo story with those in other creation stories, and state hypotheses regarding why these common elements are present.

Materials Needed

1. student textbooks
2. student notebooks (preferably three-ring binders)
3. wall map of North America (see Reference Section for sources)
4. supplementary references on Athapaskan tribes
5. supplementary references on Navajo and other creation stories (see Reference Section)
6. U.S.G.S. or other maps of the Four Corners region (see Reference Section for sources)

Suggested Time

Allow 15–20 minutes for activities 3-4 and 6, and at least one class period for activities 1-2, 5 and 7-11.

Teaching Strategies and Activities

1. Review the vocabulary for Chapter One and ask students to read the first section entitled, "The Navajo People." Go over the questions in the textbook, and list students' responses on the chalkboard. Ask students to copy the list in their notebooks, and tell them they will refer to this list, and others to be made later, throughout the course of studies.
2. Tell students to study the maps in Chapter One, and help them to compare these with wall maps. Then ask students to locate and record the name of each Athapaskan group listed on the textbook map. Show where the group lives on the wall map, and ask students to estimate distances between each group's land and Navajoland. Divide the class into small groups and tell each group to research one (non-Navajo) Athapaskan tribe (or allow students to conduct research independently). Student research should include the following:
   a) language spoken
   b) location
   c) population
   d) traditional vs. modern economics (e.g., hunting vs. wage labor, etc.)
   e) dwellings and settlement pattern
   f) clothing and material culture
   g) other significant information about the group's way of life
   h) comparison with Navajo way of life, traditions, language, etc.

   Ask students to report on their findings in class.
3. Begin a brief discussion of creation stories. Cover the following points:

   a) Every society has a creation story which usually includes how people were created, important events in their development, important characters and their actions, the exploits of a "hero" or "heroine" who represent cultural and behavioral ideals.

   b) Each society's story is a mixture of objective and subjective elements. Stories such as the

one in the textbook have been told and retold, and passed down from generation to generation. Each storyteller relates a slightly different version; there is no "right" or "absolute" version. The creation story in the text is *one* version that has been passed down to us today. (Encourage students to compare this with other stories they have heard from relatives or read in books.)

c) There are thus similarities between cultural groups regarding story elements. One important similarity is that non-human characters usually have human characteristics. In a sense, this allows the characters' actions to be viewed more objectively and dispassionately, while also facilitating the teaching of a moral or behavioral message. The actions of Coyote the trickster, for example, represent the antithesis of proper behavior — and illustrate the dire consequences of improper or amoral behavior.

d) The stories associated with the creation and development of a group of people are partly religious and partly secular. A social studies textbook is not an appropriate vehicle for conveying the deeper religious significance of creation stories; these elements are better introduced by relatives and medicine men. Nevertheless, the creation story contained in the text is a significant part of our cultural tradition, and should be treated with respect.

4. Using the discussion in activity 3, above, as a stimulus, ask students a series of questions which will help them further understand the role and importance of creation stories. Begin with a definition:

"What does the term 'creation story' mean to you?"
"What does the term 'legend' mean?"
"How are they different? The same? Why or why not?"
"Are all parts of creation stories true? How do we know?"

After establishing definitions, help students make generalizations about the role and significance of creation stories. Begin by asking the following question:

"What does the study of creation stories tell us about the development of Navajo and other cultures?"

5. Instruct students to read the section entitled, "In the Beginning." As they read, ask them to note the following:
a) events which changed the Navajos' way of life or which forced them to make changes
b) story elements which seem to be factual. (Compare and contrast the story told by medicine men with the one told by scientists. In what ways are they similar? Different? What does each have to say about Navajo history?)

6. Review the creation story with students. After the review, help them to develop ideas about the story by asking these questions:

"Why are the sacred mountains important to Navajos? What 'messages' do these sacred places have for us today? How can we learn from them?"

"List one event from the story you have read which affects Navajos today. How does it affect us?"

7. Gather several condensed versions of creation stories from other cultural groups (see Reference Section; stories from other Athapaskan groups are particularly appropriate for this activity). Allow students to study the materials you have gathered or present them orally in class. Initiate a discussion in which students compare and contrast the following:

a) how people were created
b) events which affect people today
c) culture hero/heroine; how he or she helped his/her people
d) rules for living

8. Initiate a discussion on oral and written history; encourage students to compare and contrast the two forms of recording information. For example, the creation story in their text was derived from oral accounts told by Navajo elders. What are the advantages of each form of recording

history? Disadvantages? How are the two forms similar? Different? After the discussion, ask students to write a short paper comparing the two types of historical documentation; you may wish to ask them to do library research on creation stories as part of this assignment.

9. Assist students in developing one or more of the charts outlined below:

EVENTS FROM CREATION STORY THAT AFFECT NAVAJOS, PAST AND PRESENT

Creation Events	World In Which Events Occurred	How Event Affected People Then	How Event Affects Us Today
Creation of First People			
Creation of Clans			
Birth of Changing Woman			
Building First Hogan			
First Fire			

SIMILARITIES BETWEEN NAVAJO AND OTHER CREATION STORIES

Navajo Event	How Event Affected People	Other Creation Stories With Similar Event/Effect
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		

10. Acquire a good set of maps of the Four Corners area. U.S. Geological Survey Maps (see Reference Section for information on obtaining these), are excellent. Divide the class into 4–5 small groups. Give each group a set of maps. (Students may need some instruction in using topographical maps, depending on their experience.) Give each group a list of important place names (in Navajo and English); give each some general information regarding the location of sites on the list. Instruct students to locate the sites on the maps and to write down the map coordinates. (NOTE: This is a map skill often tested in standardized achievement tests.)

11. Use the lists and questions in objectives 3–6 to develop worksheets for students. When students have completed their worksheets, review their responses in class. Tell them to insert corrected worksheets in their notebooks for review later.

NOTES

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CHAPTER TWO

In Dinétah

Lesson 2

Purpose

Dinétah is the original Navajo homeland in the Southwest. Many elements of modern Navajo culture were acquired and developed there, and medicine men say Dinétah is the place where the people became "truly Navajos." Chapter Two relates the Dinétah story as it has been recorded in oral and written form, and as it was revealed by Dinétah Navajos themselves in pictographs and petroglyphs.

The lesson for this chapter helps students compare native accounts of the first Navajos with the histories of western scientists and scholars. Students also draw conclusions about Navajo-Pueblo interactions, the interdependence of cultural groups who lived in Dinétah, causes of change and Dinétah's significance for Navajos today. Throughout the activities, map and globe skills and social skills are developed and emphasized.

Concepts

Concepts developed in the previous lesson are reinforced and elaborated here. In addition, the following concepts are introduced:

Interaction. When two or more elements (or groups of people) work together, they produce or create something different from what each could do alone. Life could not exist without interaction; it is the process which keeps our world functioning.

Cooperation. When people work together and actively participate to solve mutual problems, we refer to their actions as cooperative.

Cause-and-Effect. When two elements interact, there is a consequence. Depending on the elements interacting and how they interact, the effect will be positive, negative or neutral.

Culture Contact. When two groups of people, each with different lifestyles, meet and influence one another, we call it *culture contact.*

Culture Change. When cultural activities are modified as a result of contact with others or fluctuating environmental conditions, the consequence is cultural change.

Change Agent. Any one or combination of factors (including environment, contact with others, advances in technology, etc.), which cause or facilitate modifications and/or adaptations in human behavior.

Balance. When two things are equal or coexist in a mutually beneficial way, we say they are balanced or in *harmony.* In terms of culture contact, balance refers to a type of human interaction involving mutual exchange, including the exchange of information, ideas and/or technology. Both cultural groups benefit in such a balanced state; neither dominates or is oppressed.

Main Idea

The primary ideas outlined in the introduction to this *Guide* are emphasized here.

Skills To Be Developed

1. Acquiring Information
   a) reading
   b) listening
   c) observing
   d) library research
   e) interviews with resource people
   f) picture and map analysis
2. Organizing Information
   a) notetaking
   b) listing
   c) grouping
   d) labeling
   e) chart-making
3. Communicating Information
   a) Oral communication
      - participation in group discussion
   b) written communication
      - notetaking
      - written reports
4. Using Information
   a) answering questions
   b) making inferences
   c) comparing/contrasting
   d) making predictions
5. Knowledge Gained
   a) concept development (see concepts outlined above)
   b) terminology for sites, people and events in Dinétah
   c) Navajo and scientific accounts of Dinétah and Navajo origins
6. Map and Globe Skills
   a) locating sites in and near Dinétah
7. Social Skills
   a) cooperation in group discussion and art activities
   b) interacting with others in class activities
   c) developing respect for Navajo sacred sites
   d) application of concept *k'é* in class activities

Objectives To Be Achieved

By the end of this lesson, students will:

1. Locate on a map, significant sites in and near Dinétah, and use correct terminology (Navajo-English) for each site.
2. Answer factual (closed) questions about the Dinétah era. Examples:
   a) When did Navajos (according to Navajo and western scientific accounts), settle in Dinétah?
   b) What evidence is there that Navajos lived in Dinétah?
   c) In what types of houses did the Dinétah Navajos live?
3. Answer open questions about the Dinétah era. Examples:
   a) How does the Dinétah Navajos' relationship with the Pueblos affect that relationship today?
   b) How did the Navajos' relationship with other tribes create new Navajo clans?
   c) What does the story told by medicine men say about the first Navajos? How is this different from/similar to, the story told by anthropologists?
   d) Why did Navajos build stone houses and watch towers?

4. Compare and contrast oral and written accounts of Navajo origins.
5. Correctly respond to questions regarding the processes of change and adaptation.
6. List and group changes according to whether they are social/cultural or economic in nature.
7. List at least three changes and change agents during the Dinétah period.
8. State inferences about causes and origins of modern cultural practices, beliefs and traits.
9. Make oral and written statements about how and why change occurs.

Materials Needed

1. student textbooks
2. student notebooks
3. references on anthropology and the work of anthropologists (see Reference Section)
4. one or more resource people (see activities 3 and 7)
5. chalkboard
6. butcher paper
7. paint, colored pens, crayons or other drawing medium (see activity 8)
8. U.S.G.S. or other maps of the Four Corners region (for sources of maps, see references listed for Chapter One in Reference Section)

Suggested Time

Allow 1–2 class periods for activities 1–3 and 7–12; activities 4–5 can both be conducted during the same class period.

Teaching Strategies and Activities

1. Review the vocabulary for Chapter Two, and instruct students to read the chapter. Tell them to note similarities and differences between the Navajo version and "the other story" told by anthropologists.
2. Initiate a discussion about anthropologists — what they do and how they study human behavior. Bring books on anthropology to class, and/or ask students to conduct library research on this topic. Assist them in their research as necessary. Ask them to write a short report entitled, "What Anthropologists Tell Us About Navajo History."
3. Invite a medicine man or other resource person to class, and ask him/her to discuss Navajo life in Dinétah. (NOTE: Be sure the season is appropriate for telling some traditional stories.) Take notes during the presentation, and use your notes as a basis for a question-answer period following the lecture. Allow students to interview the resource person after class and to discuss their ideas during the next class period.
4. Use the following questions to help students understand the processes of change and adaptation which occurred in Dinétah:

   "According to what you have read and heard, when did the people become truly Navajo? How did this happen?"

   "Who was living in Dinétah when the four clans got there?"

   "What happened when the four clans met the people in Dinétah?"

   "How did the Dinétah Navajos live? Why do you think they lived this way?"

   "How did the Navajos and Pueblos help each other in Dinétah?"

   "Who were some other neighbors of the Dinétah Navajos? How did they get along with these people?"

5. Following the discussion above, ask students to list the major changes that happened in Dinétah. Write their responses on the chalkboard, and tell students to take notes. When their list is complete, help them group items into these categories:
   a) *Social/cultural changes* (changes in how people lived, their kinship and clanship system, relationships with other groups, etc.)
   b) *Economic changes* (changes in how people survived and met their basic needs)

6. Tell students that change occurs as a result of many factors. These factors are sometimes called *change agents*. Some change agents are *internal* — that is, the people themselves choose to make changes. Other change agents are *external* — forces from the outside make it necessary to change. After this discussion, help students make a chart on the chalkboard or butcher paper similar to the one below.

CHANGE AGENTS

Change	What Caused the Change	How Change Affected People
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

7. Ask students to name one or more cultural practices, beliefs or traits of Navajos today (e.g., dwellings, settlement pattern, ceremonies, clothing, etc.), then instruct them to trace the trait back to its origin. (You may wish to extend this activity by asking a local resource person to make a presentation on the origins of varius contemporary practices, or by allowing students to interview community elders on particular topics.)

8. Ask students to choose something which has changed and draw a "before and after" mural on butcher paper.

9. Using the U.S.G.S. or other maps from activity 9, Lesson 1 (Chapter One), instruct students to locate important sites in Dinétah, and write the Navajo and English terminology for each site.

10. Review the preceding activities, then tell students to write a short paper entitled, "How and Why People Change." (NOTE: Students should be able to recall and refer to events mentioned in their text and oral presentations. They should also be able to state several change agents and reasons for cultural change.)

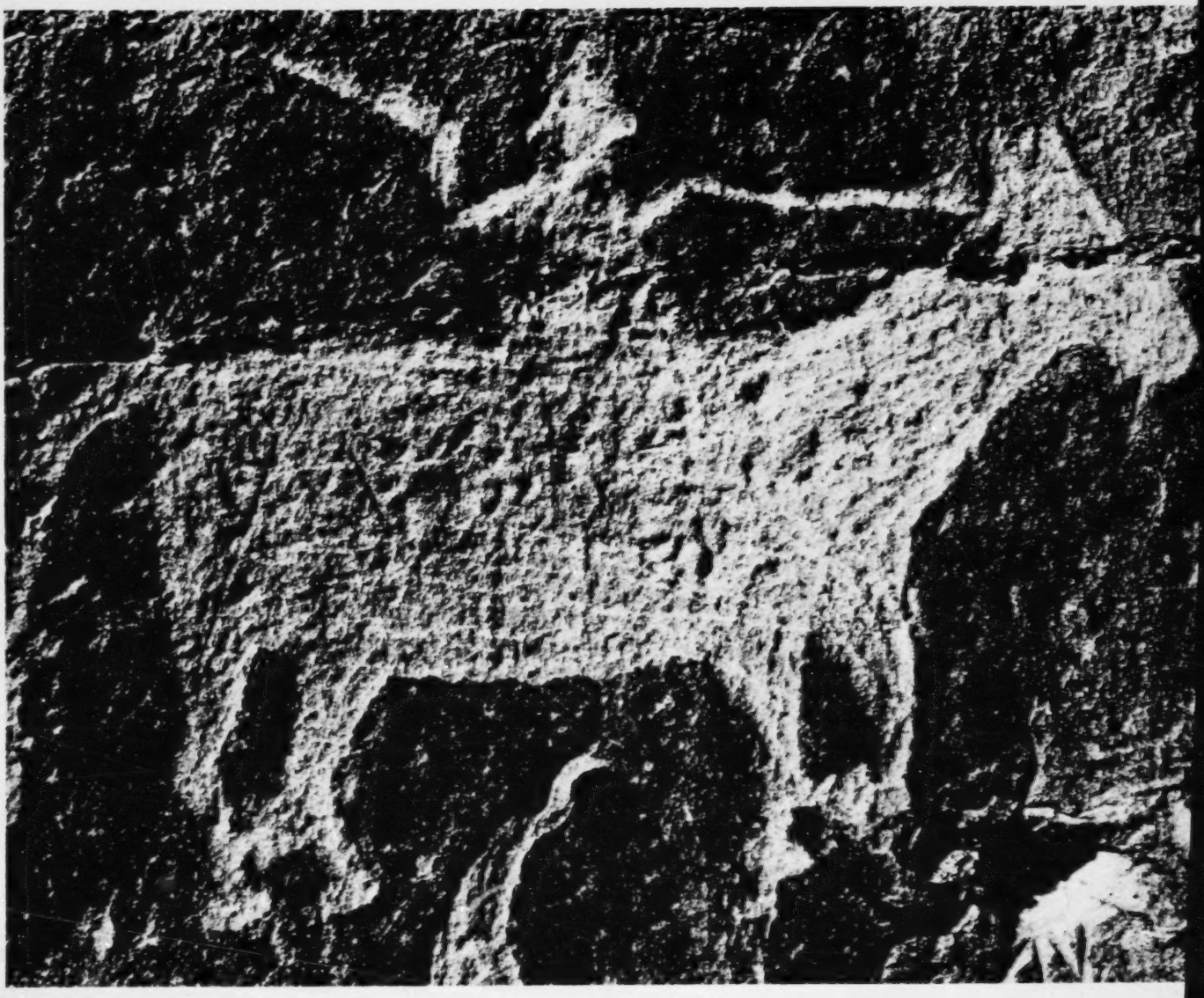
11. Use questions from activity 4 and objectives 2 and 3, to develop worksheets for students. When they have completed their worksheets, go over students' responses in class. Tell them to insert their corrected worksheets in their notebooks and to refer to them as necessary.

12. Obtain one of the many translations of the Navajo creation story which describes the four clans' journey from the west (see Reference Section). Retell this story in class, then ask students to do the following:
   a) list sites mentioned in story
   b) estimate the length of journey (in time and distance; require students to support their claims)
   c) speculate about what Navajos might have learned during their travels

   Point out that it was when the four groups joined the people in Dinétah, that they became truly Navajos. Initiate a discussion about this using these questions as stimuli:
   a) What made the four clans special? *(They were created by Changing Woman, etc.)*
   b) How did the four clans change the way the people lived in Dinétah? *(They brought new ideas; they may have known more about fighting and hunting; etc.)*

Initiate a concluding discussion on how the Navajo people changed, from their beginnings in the Black World, to their emergence near Dinétah, the reunion of the four clans with the people left behind in Dinétah, and finally, to the growth and development of the people in Dinétah.

NOTES



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CHAPTER THREE

The Spaniards

Lesson 3

Purpose

With the coming of Europeans, the American Southwest and the native peoples who lived there were forever changed. Chapter Three explores those changes and their consequences for Navajos. The lesson for this chapter focuses on map and globe skills, while encouraging students to draw conclusions and make inferences and predictions from the information presented in the textbook.

Concepts

The concepts introduced in lessons 1–2 (Chapters One–Two) are reinforced.

Main Ideas

The primary ideas listed in the introduction to this *Guide* are emphasized.

Skills to Be Developed

1. Acquiring Information
   a) reading
   b) listening
   c) observation
   d) library research
   e) interviewing
   f) picture and map analysis
2. Organizing Information
   a) notetaking
   b) listing
   c) grouping
   d) labeling
   e) chart-making
3. Communicating Information
   a) oral communication
      - group discussion
   b) written communication
      - notetaking
      - written reports
4. Using Information
   a) answering questions (closed and open)
   b) making inferences
   c) comparing/contrasting
   d) making predictions
   e) drawing conclusions from data
5. Knowledge Gained
   a) concept development
   b) terminology for significant sites, people and events during Spanish period
   c) chronology of events during Spanish period
   d) type of interaction between groups of people during Spanish period

6. Map and Globe Skills
   a) locating route of Columbus' 1492 voyage
   b) locating route and significant sites of Spanish explorers' path through the Southwest
   c) locating significant sites in 19th century Navajo territory
   d) locating significant Navajo-Spanish battle sites

7. Social Skills
   a) cooperation in group discussion and research projects
   b) interacting with others in class activities
   c) developing attitudes of respect
   d) application of concept *k'é* in class activities

Objectives To Be Achieved

By the end of this lesson, students will:

1. Locate the following on wall maps and maps in the textbook:
   a) route of Columbus' voyage
   b) significant sites during Spanish period (see activities 3 and 4 for lists)
2. Correctly answer a series of closed questions based on information from the text (see activity 8 for examples).
3. Compare and contrast internal and external change agents.
4. List and describe at least two changes influenced by Spaniards. Examples:
   a) change to a livestock economy
   b) Christianity
   c) guns and other weaponry
5. Make a prediction about how life today would be different if the 18th and 19th century relations between Navajos, Pueblos and Spaniards had been balanced. (i.e., peaceful).

Materials Needed

1. student textbooks
2. student notebooks
3. wall maps illustrating Europe, the Orient, North America and Mexico (see Reference Section for sources)
4. resource person (see activity 6)

Suggested Time

Allow at least one class period for each activity.

Teaching Strategies and Activities

1. Review the vocabulary for Chapter Three, and allow students to read through the material. (You may wish to divide their reading according to sections in the chapter.)
2. Compare the maps showing Columbus' voyage and of the Spanish explorers' path through the Southwest, with a large wall map. Ask students to locate the sites mentioned on pp. 40–44 of their textbook (e.g., Spain, Europe, Mexico, the Hopi villages, Dinétah), on the wall map. During this process, review the material presented on pp. 41–47 with students, using the following questions to stimulate discussion:

   "Why did Columbus want to explore the Orient? What did he hope to find there?"

   "What happened on Columbus' voyage? Where did he land?"

   "What did the Spaniards name the people they found in America? How does this affect us today?"

"What were the Spanish explorers like? What were they looking for? Was this the same thing Columbus was looking for?"

"What did the Spanish explorers want the Indian people to do?"

"What new thing did the Spaniards bring with them? *(Livestock.)* How did this change the Navajos' way of life?

"Is this an example of an *internal* or *external* change agent?"

3. Review the section entitled, "Navajos Move West," and tell students to study the map of Navajo country during the 1800s (p. 48). Compare this map with a wall map, and help students locate and identify significant sites (Canyon de Chelly, Black Mesa, Chuska Mountains, Cebolleta, the four sacred mountains). After they have studied the maps, ask the following questions:

   "Why did Navajos leave Dinétah?"

   "Where did they go? Why?"

   "How did Navajos live in those days?"

4. Review the section entitled, "Raiding For Horses and Sheep." Refer to a wall map which shows 19th century Navajo, Pueblo and Mexican/Spanish settlements. Ask students to estimate the distance between settlements, then begin a discussion on the interaction between Navajos and their neighbors, using these questions as stimuli:

   "What was the environment of the area shown on the map?" *(Discuss the vegetation, rainfall, climate, etc.)*

   "What does this tell you about land use?" *(It probably meant the land was ideally suited for a livestock economy supplemented by small-scale farming, hunting and gathering wild plants.)*

   "Using the map, locate those areas which were probably best suited for people's survival needs."

   "What do you think might happen when two different groups of people want to use the same area?" *(Students should posit several types of interaction — e.g., the people could share the land, like the Navajos and Pueblos did in Dinétah, or they might fight for the land, etc.)*

   "Now that you have read about life in those times, what would have made it possible for Navajos and other Indians to share the land?" *(Navajos and Pueblos had lived together peacefully in Dinétah; Navajos and Pueblos both had livestock, and might have developed common lifestyles based on a livestock economy, etc.* ENCOURAGE STUDENTS TO BRAINSTORM!)

   "What caused Navajos and other Indians to fight over the land?"

   "What modern situations have resulted from those instances of cooperation and sharing?"

   "What modern situations have resulted from those instances of fighting and conflict?" *(E.g., Navajo-Hopi land dispute, etc.)*

5. Review the incident at Canyon del Muerto (pp. 51–53 of the text). Invite a Navajo elder to class, and ask him/her to relate an ancestor's personal experience during this time period. Take notes during the presentation, and use these to generate discussion after the lecture. (Instruct students to take notes during the lecture, too.)

6. Allow students to follow up activity 5 by interviewing an older relative or friend about Navajo-Spanish encounters. Students should write a report on their interviews, and present it in class.

7. Review the section entitled, "Coming of the Americans." Initiate a discussion on the difference between the ways of living and goals of:
   a) Navajos
   b) Mexicans/Spaniards
   c) Americans

   What did each group want? How did they try to achieve their goals? Ask students to write a short report on this topic.

8. Devise a worksheet of factual comprehension questions on textual material. Questions should include:

   "Who was Christopher Columbus? What did he do? Why?"

   "What were missons? Who built them? Why?"

   "Who were the naat'áanii?"

   "What happened at Massacre Cave?"

   "Who was Narbona? What did he do?"

   "Who was Blasde Henojos? What did he try to do? Why?"

   "How did the Navajos become known as good fighters?"

   "What was the Southwest Territory? Who lived there? Who wanted this land?"

   "What happended in 1846?"

   Review students' responses in class; ask them to insert the corrected worksheets in their notebooks, and to refer to them as necessary.

9. Initiate a concluding discussion, using the following format:

   "We have read about many people and events that led to changes in the Navajo way of life. Some of these changes were internal, and some were external." *(Ask students to define the difference between the two.)*

   "Were the changes you read about in Chapter Three caused mostly by internal or external change agents?" *(External.)* "Why do you think this?"

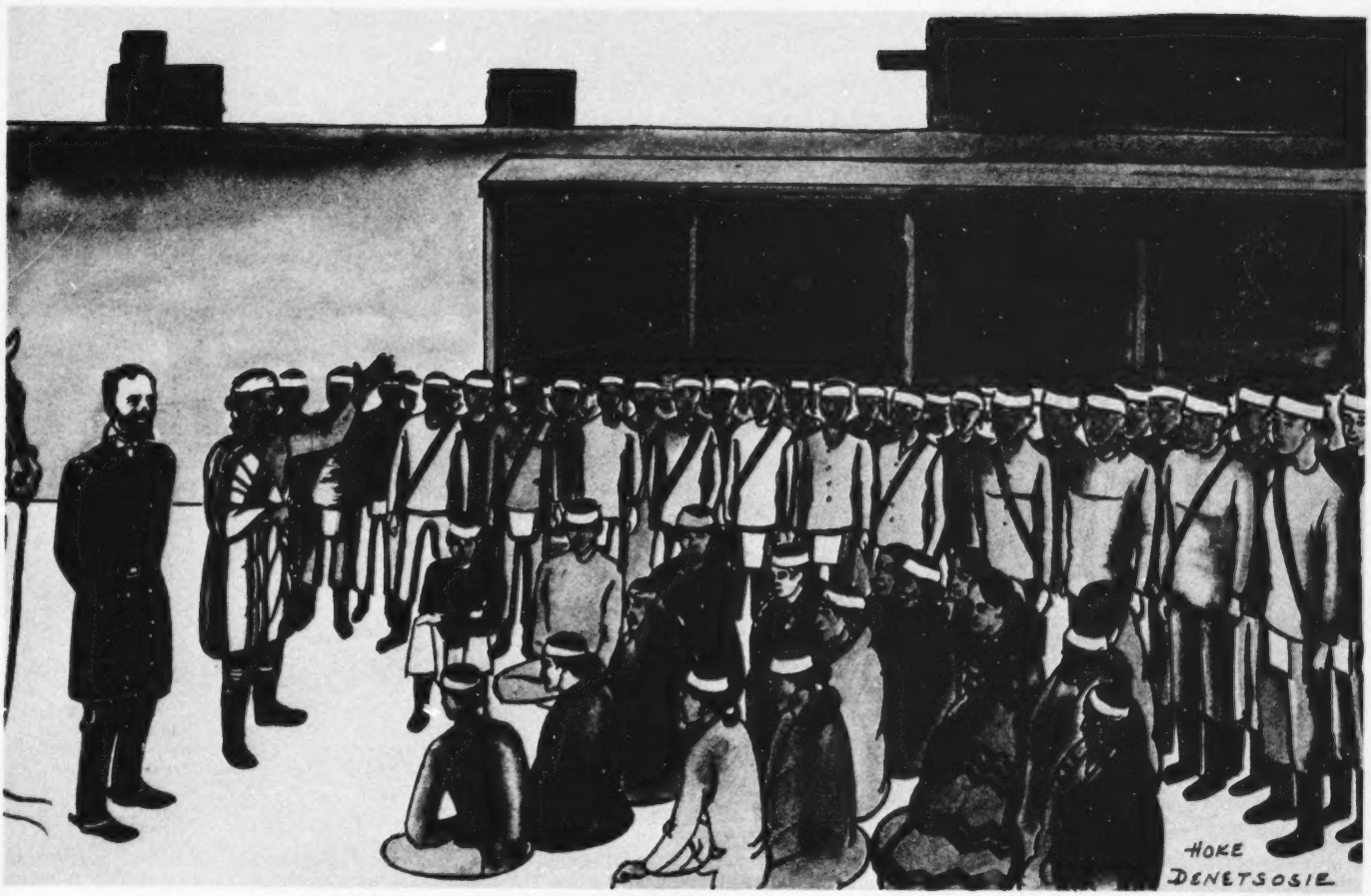
   "We have also learned about balance, and how some people lived together peacefully. They worked together and lived in harmony. Can anyone give an example of a balanced relationship from the book?" *(E.g., Navajos and Pueblos in Dinétah.)*

   "Was the relationship between Navajos and Spaniards in balance? Why or why not?"

   "Was the relationship between Navajos and Pueblo villagers (during the Spanish period) in balance? Why or why not?"

   "How could the different groups of people have lived in peace? Would things be different today if the Navajos, Pueblos and Spaniards had not fought?"

   After the discussion, ask students to write a short paper entitled, "How the Navajos and Their Neighbors Might Have Lived In Peace." Post their papers on the bulletin board.



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CHAPTER FOUR

Conflict and Defeat

Lesson 4

Purpose

The period before and after the Long Walk was a tragic turning point in Navajo history, and the events of that period had the most significant impact of any to date. Family organization was shattered during the bitter years of raiding, warfare and internment at Fort Sumner. The Navajo population was decimated by disease caused by contact with Anglo-Europeans. Navajos' experiences at Fort Sumner were chastening ones which continue to influence their relationship with Anglos today. Finally, Navajo territory was severely limited by the boundaries established in the Treaty of 1868. In subsequent years, as their herds grew, this fact would play a key role in changing Navajo land use patterns and ultimately, would act as a catalyst for the government's stock reduction program.

In the lesson for this chapter, students explore both the causes and consequences of the Navajos' fight against Anglo-Americans. Research, writing and art activities help them formalize their ideas and conclusions, while developing communication, affective and map and globe skills.

Concepts

The concepts introduced in previous chapters are reinforced. In particular, the concepts of *interaction, cause-and-effect, culture contact* and *culture change* are emphasized. In addition, the following concepts are introduced:

Ethnocentrism. The belief that the actions and attitudes of one's own culture are correct and morally right, and that the behavior of members of other cultural groups should be measured against this standard.

Cultural Relativity. The belief that the behavior of culturally different peoples should be judged in terms of *their* cultural rules and expectations; cultural relativity is the *opposite* of ethnocentrism.

Main Ideas

The primary ideas listed in the introduction to this *Guide* are elaborated in this lesson.

Skills To Be Developed

1. Acquiring Information
   a) reading
   b) listening
   c) observation
   d) library research
   e) interviewing
   f) picture and map analysis
2. Organizing Information
   a) notetaking
   b) listing
   c) grouping
   d) labeling
   e) chart-making
   f) formalizing ideas in mural form

3. Communicating Information
   a) oral communication
      - group discussion
   b) written communication
      - notetaking
      - written reports
   c) communicating information through graphic illustrations
4. Using Information
   a) answering closed and open questions
   b) making inferences
   c) comparing/contrasting
   d) making predictions
   e) drawing conclusions from data
5. Knowledge Gained
   a) concept development (see concepts outlined above)
   b) terminology for significant sites, people and events during Anglo contact period
   c) chronology of events during Anglo contact period
   d) type of interaction between Navajos and other cultural groups during Anglo contact period
6. Map and Globe Skills
   a) locating significant sites during Anglo contact period
7. Social Skills
   a) development of attitudes regarding Navajo-Anglo relations (in particular, distinguishing between *ethnocentrism* and *cultural relativity*)
   b) cooperation in group discussion, research projects and art activities
   c) developing attitudes of respect
   d) application of concept *k'é* in class activities

Objectives To Be Achieved

By the end of this lesson, students will:

1. Correctly answer a series of closed questions based on information from the text (see activity 3 for examples).
2. Outline in chart form, the causes of conflict between Navajos and Anglo-Americans.
3. Make a statement suggesting at least two ways in which conflict could have been avoided.
4. Locate on a wall map the significant sites during the Anglo contact period which are mentioned in the text, and diagram these on a wall mural.
5. Describe in chart form at least five cultural elements and how they changed after the Navajos' internment at Fort Sumner.
6. State, in chart form, at least five causes and effects of the Navajo-Anglo conflict.
7. State a generalization about the consequences of ethnocentrism and compare and contrast this with cultural relativity.
8. Formalize their ideas about the Long Walk and its effects in a wall mural.
9. Make a generalization, in oral and written form, about the meaning and effect of the 1868 treaty.

Materials Needed

1. student textbooks
2. student notebooks
3. wall maps illustrating significant sites during Anglo contact period (see Reference Section for sources)
4. butcher paper for mural
5. paint, colored pens, crayons or other drawing medium for mural
6. chalkboard, chalk
7. supplementary texts on the Long Walk period (see Reference Section)
8. encyclopedias

Suggested Time

Allow at least one class period for activities 2–3 and 11, and 2–4 class periods for activities 1 and 4–10.

Teaching Strategies and Activities

1. Review the vocabulary for Chapter Four, and allow students to read through the material. Divide reading into sub-sections, if desired.
2. Use a wall map and ask students to locate the significant sites mentioned in the text. Students should be able to provide the Navajo and English terms for the following:
   a) Fort Defiance
   b) Canyon de Chelly
   c) Fort Sumner
   d) Pueblo villages
   e) Mexican-Spanish villages
   f) Apache country
   g) Comanche country
   h) 1868 reservation
3. Develop worksheets to test students' comprehension of the material in Chapter Four. Questions should include:

   "What are allies? With whom did the Americans become allies? Why did they do this?"

   "Who was Zarcillos Largos? What did he tell the Americans?"

   "What was Fort Defiance? Who lived there?"

   "How did the Navajos decide to drive away the American soldiers? What happened?"

   "Who was James Carleton? What did he want to do to the Indians?"

   "What was Bosque Redondo?"

   "Who were Barboncito and Delgadito? What did they try to do?"

   "Who was Kit Carson? What did he do?"

   "Why were Carson's activities called the 'Scorched Earth Campaign'?"

   "How many Navajos surrendered at Fort Defiance? Where did they go from there?"

   "What was the Long Walk? Describe what happened to Navajos on the Long Walk."

   "What tribe was at Fort Sumner with the Navajos?"

   "What tribe didn't want the Navajos at Fort Sumner?"

   "Name three terrible things that happened to Navajos at Fort Sumner."

"Who was Herrero? What did he tell the Washington leaders at Fort Sumner?"

"What was the 'old paper'? Who signed it?"

"How big was the first Navajo Reservation?"

"When did the Navajos leave Fort Sumner? Where did they go?"

4. Divide the class into groups, and give each group a reader about the Long Walk period (see Reference Section). Assign each group to read one account about the Long Walk and to summarize their reading in a short paper. Each group should present their report to the class at the next class period.

5. Help students develop a map mural of the Long Walk period, using data contained in their text and obtained during activity 4, above. Their map should include towns, cities, and other locations, and illustrations of scenes during the Long Walk.

6. Conclude the study of the Long Walk with a writing exercise. Instruct students to choose one of the following topics:
   a) What did the Long Walk mean to the Navajos?
   b) A brief history of the Long Walk period.
   c) Reservation life after the Long Walk.
   d) What caused the Long Walk.

7. Help students prepare a chart of important facts about the early relationship between Anglo-Americans and Navajos. In particular, note the areas of conflict and misunderstanding. When the chart is complete, help students draw conclusions about the causes of misunderstanding between Navajos and Anglo-Americans. Questions similar to those below will help:

   "Why do you think the Americans became allies with the Pueblos and Mexican villagers?"

   "Do you think the Americans' reasons had anything to do with their experiences with Indians elsewhere? Why or why not?

   "After reading about the Navajos and the Americans, what can you say about how conflict comes about?"

   "What could the Navajos have done to avoid conflict?"

   "What could the Americans have done to solve the conflict?"

   "If the Americans had followed your advice, could the war between Navajos and Americans have been avoided? Why or why not?"

   (NOTE: Once students have explored these areas, they should have a good understanding of the causes of conflicts. They may make a generalization which indicates that the Americans were more interested in opening up the Southwest to Anglo settlers than they were in finding an equitable solution to the centuries-old conflict described by Zarcillos Largos. You might compare this situation to modern conflicts in Central America, the Falkland Islands and elsewhere.)

8. Assist students in conducting library research on early relationships between Navajos and Anglo-Americans. Ask them to report their findings in a short paper entitled, "Navajos and the Americans: The Early Days." (NOTE: This paper can serve as an evaluation of students' mastery of key concepts and skill areas.)

9. In addition to their knowledge of the causes of Anglo-Navajo conflicts, students should understand what cultural changes occurred because of the Navajos' contact with Spaniards and Americans. To help them develop this understanding, assist students in making a chart similar to the one at the top of p. 23.

CULTURAL CHANGES, BEFORE AND AFTER FORT SUMNER

Cultural Element	What It Was Like Before Fort Sumner	What It Was Like After Fort Sumner
1. Family Organization		
2. Land Use		
3. Livestock		
4. Health		
5.		
6.		

10. Begin this activity by saying:

"For the past few days we have been studying the causes of war between the Navajos and Americans. We also studied the effects of war — how things changed after the Navajos came back from Fort Sumner. Let's make a list of the causes and the effects."

Draw a line down the middle of the chalkboard. On the left side write "CAUSES;" on the right, write "EFFECTS." Help students to develop lists, but don't provide all the information for them. Students' lists should go beyond the obvious. For example, they should include:

CAUSES OF WAR	EFFECTS OF WAR
1. cultural misunderstanding	1. mistrust of Anglos by Navajos, even today
2. ethnocentrism	2. same as No. 1, above
3. language differences	3. lack of communication between Navajos and Anglos
4. conflict over land use/economics	4. loss of Navajo territory; destruction of homes; loss of farms and livestock

When they have exhausted their ideas, ask students to verify their answers by researching the causes of war. Provide an encyclopedia with information on various wars (e.g., the Mexican-American War, the war for American independence, World Wars I and II), and ask students to write the findings of their research in short papers. Discuss student papers and ideas in a subsequent class session. Following the discussion, help students to correct any wrong guesses and then develop a statement such as:

"Based on the evidence we have gathered, we believe that wars are mostly caused by: _____ _____."

Use students' generalization to discuss ways in which war might be avoided. Ask them to write a paper entitled, "Some Causes of War and How People Can Avoid Wars."

(NOTE: It is likely that in this activity, students will discover that ethnocentrism is one factor which leads to conflict. Help them elaborate on this concept, and compare and contrast it with cultural relativity. Use the techniques for introducing and developing concepts outlined in the introduction for this *Guide*.)

11. Discuss the Treaty of 1868 and its provisions. What did it say? What did it mean? Which of its provisions still exists today? (See Reference Section for sources on copies of the treaty.)

NOTES

CHAPTER FIVE

The Growing Reservation

Lesson 5

Purpose

In this lesson students generate a list of problems faced by Navajos during the early reservation period. They then review types of leadership during that period, and in a synthesizing activity, analyze ways in which leaders tried to resolve problems. Finally, students analyze their own local government today — the chapter — and apply their knowledge to problem-solving in a role-playing situation.

Concepts

The concepts of previous lessons are reinforced. In particular, the concepts of *cooperation, interaction* and *adaptation* are emphasized.

Main Ideas

The main ideas of previous lessons are reinforced.

Skills To Be Developed

1. Acquiring Information
   a) reading
   b) listening
   c) observation
   d) library research
   e) interviewing
   f) picture analysis
2. Organizing Information
   a) notetaking
   b) listing
   c) grouping
   d) labeling
   e) chart-making
   f) presenting information to others in a role-playing situation
3. Communicating Information
   a) oral communication
      - group discussion
      - role-playing
   b) written communication
      - notetaking
      - written reports
4. Using Information
   a) answering closed and open questions
   b) making inferences
   c) comparing/contrasting
   d) making predictions
   e) drawing conclusions from data
   f) applying knowledge to the solution of a fictional problem
5. Knowledge Gained
   a) concept development (see concepts outlined above)
   b) terminology (see Chapter Five vocabulary)
   c) chronology of events during early reservation period

6. Map and Globe Skills
   a) locating significant sites during early reservation period
7. Social Skills
   a) cooperation in group discussion, research projects and role-playing activity
   b) application of knowledge to solution of a potential community/social problem
   c) developing attitudes of respect
   d) application of concept *k'é* in class activities

Objectives To Be Achieved

By the end of this lesson, students will:

1. Correctly answer a series of closed questions based on information from the text (see activity 2 for examples).
2. List and group problems faced by Navajos during the early reservation period, and state at least three ways in which the problems were, or might have been resolved.
3. Following a presentation by a Navajo elder, compare and contrast "formal" education at boarding schools with traditional teaching in the home.
4. List three ways in which: (1) traders helped the Navajos and (2) Navajos helped the traders during the early reservation period.
5. Locate on a map the sites of the first trading posts.
6. Identify on a map the Navajo Reservation expansions, and state a generalization about the consequences of these expansions.
7. State, in oral and written form, the qualities necessary for leadership during the early reservation period, and the roles leaders played in the developing reservation.
8. Compare and contrast traditional and modern forms of tribal government.
9. State, in oral and written form, at least four ways in which the chapter serves the local community.
10. Apply knowledge gained in previous acitivites to the solution of a fictional or actual community problem, in a role-playing situation.

Materials Needed

1. student textbooks
2. student notebooks
3. maps illustrating Navajo Reservation expansions and locations of first trading post (see Reference Section for sources)
4. chalkboard, chalk or butcher paper (for charts)
5. local resource person (see activities 4 and 6)
6. supplementary references on the early reservation period, Navajo leaders and the development of tribal government (see Reference Section)

Suggested Time

Allow at least one class period for activities 3-4 and 6-7, and two to four class periods for all other activities.

Teaching Strategies and Activities

1. Review the vocabulary for Chapter Five, and ask students to read through the chapter. Divide their reading into sub-sections, if desired.
2. Develop worksheets to test students' comprehension of material in Chapter Five. Include the following questions on the worksheets:

"How did Navajos survive when they returned from Fort Sumner?"

"What were rations?"

"Give three reasons why Navajos didn't like boarding schools."

"What kind of education did children receive at home, from their parents and grandparents?"

"Who was Dana Shipley? What was his job?"

"Who was Blackhorse? What did he do to Shipley? Why?"

"Who was Lorenzo Hubbell? What did he do?"

"Where were the first trading posts located?"

"How did the trader help Navajos? How did Navajos help the trader?"

"Did Navajos like the trading posts? Why or why not?"

"What was the general council? Why was it started?"

"Who were the three leaders of the business council?"

"When was the tribal council started?"

"What were the tribal offices on the first tribal council?"

"Who was John Hunter? What did he do?"

"Where was the first chapter meeting?"

"What is the purpose of chapters?"

3. Help students develop a list of problems faced by Navajos during the early reservation period. Write the list on the chalkboard, and instruct students to copy it into their notebooks. When the list is complete, ask them to separate problems into the following categories (you may wish to help students generate additional or different categories):
   a) food
   b) shelter
   c) education
   d) government

   Encourage students to suggest at least three ways in which problems under each category were resolved, or how they might have been resolved. Write their suggestions on the chalkboard (students should take notes).

4. Invite a Navajo elder to class and ask him/her to give a presentation on formal education experiences. If possible, the individual should compare this to the type of education received at home. Take notes during the lecture, and use these to initiate a question-and-answer period later. (Tell students to take notes, too.) Allow students to interview the lecturer or a relative, and to describe their impressions and ideas during a subsequent class period.

5. Using a wall map, ask students to locate sites of the first trading posts. Invite the local trader (or other trader) to class, and ask him to give a presentation on the traders' role in the developing reservation. Take notes during the presentation and use these to generate discussion following the lecture. (Students should also take notes.) As an alternate activity, allow students (in small groups) to interview the local trader, and report on their findings at a subsequent class session.

6. Obtain a map showing the Navajo Reservation expansions (see Reference Section for sources) and review with students the date and extent of each addition. Use the following questions to generate discussion:

   "Why did the federal government add this land to the Navajo Reservation?"

   "What do you think would have happened if the land had not been added?"

   "What have been some of the effects of adding this land to our reservation?"

Students should be able to posit several possible consequences if the reservation had not been expanded (e.g., more people would have been forced to move to the cities or other places off the reservation, there might have been further conflicts between Navajos and the Anglo ranchers who settled around the reservation borders, etc.). They should also be able to posit several effects of the reservation additions (e.g., this was part of the cause of the Navajo-Hopi land dispute, Navajos today have more land on which to raise livestock and crops, etc.). After the discussion, ask students to write a paper entitled, "The Effects of Reservation Expansions on Navajos Today."

7. Obtain several resources on early Navajo leaders. Use these and material in the textbook to review information on Navajo leadership and traditional leadership roles and methods. Divide the class into small groups. Instruct each group to research and report on one Navajo leader. Student reports should include the following:
   a) time during which leader acted
   b) qualities of leadership needed at that time (require students to support their claims)
   c) events during that time period and role played by leader in influencing events

8. Initiate a discussion on past and present forms of tribal government. (Use resources listed in Reference Section for background information.) The following questions will help students analyze the development of Navajo tribal government:

   "What were the major characteristics of traditional tribal government? Who were the leaders then? What did they do?"

   "Do you think the traditional form of government was successful? Why or why not?"

   "What problems could be solved with this form of government? What problems could not be solved?"

   "When do you think Navajo government styles changed? Why did they change?"

   "When was the first Navajo tribal council started? Why was it started?"

   "How has tribal government changed since the first tribal council? Why do you think it has changed?"

   Following this discussion, review the list of problems faced by Navajos during the early reservation period (see activity 3). For each problem, discuss ways in which different types of tribal government might have dealt with the problem. Then ask students to write a short paper on the benefits and disadvantages of each type of tribal government discussed during the activity.

9. Arrange for students to attend a chapter meeting and/or interview chapter officers. Students should seek to answer the following questions:

   "What is the chapter's purpose?"

   "How does the chapter achieve its goals?"

   "What is the structure of the chapter?" (i.e., chapter officers, their responsibilities, relation of chapter to tribal council and community, etc.)

   "Is the chapter today different than it was when it first started? If so, how? Why is it different?"

   Ask students to report on their findings in class.

10. Use information gathered in previous activities to set up a simulation. For this activity, students should first elect chapter officers; other pupils should represent particular members of the community (e.g., the school board, school director, community health representative, school principal, teachers, trader, etc.). Ask students to select a community problem which might be resolved at a chapter meeting, and to role-play the presentation of the problem and its resolution. Arrange the furniture, etc., in the class to look like the chapter house, and require students to follow the procedures they observed while attending a meeting (activity 7). After the role-playing exercise, students should write a report entitled, "How the Chapter Solved the Problem Of . . ." Post their papers on the classroom bulletin board, in the hallway, or at the chapter house.

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CHAPTER SIX

Changes

Lesson 6

Purpose

In Chapter Six, students learn about three major events: the stock reduction program, World War II, and the Navajo-Hopi Act which allocated monies for new reservation development. The lesson for this chapter allows students to combine library research and interviews of local resource people in the study of these topics. Two synthesizing activities help students analyze the process of change and the contributions of Navajos to United States and world history.

Concepts

The concepts of previous lessons are elaborated and reinforced.

Main Ideas

The primary ideas outlined in the introduction to this *Guide* are emphasized.

Skills To Be Developed

The activities for this lesson require students to apply all skills developed throughout the course of studies.

Objectives To Be Achieved

By the end of this lesson, students will:

1. Correctly answer a series of closed questions based on information from the text (see activity 2).
2. Make a statement explaining how erosion occurs.
3. Compare and contrast the federal government's goals in instituting the stock reduction program with Navajo views of that program and its effects.
4. Describe Navajos' contributions to World War II.
5. State at least four ways in which the Navajo-Hopi Act enhanced development of the reservation, and its effect on Navajo people today.
6. List, in chart form, major events and eras covered throughout the course of studies, and identify whether changes resulting from these events were caused by internal or external forces.
7. Identify how Navajos adapted in response to the changes outlined in their chart.
8. Identify Navajo contributions to other groups of people (neighboring tribes, Spaniards, Anglo-Americans, Europeans) during each period/event outlined in the chart.

Materials Needed

1. student textbooks
2. student notebooks
3. large glass tray
4. ground soil
5. beaker of water
6. resource person(s) (see activities 4 and 5)
7. supplementary texts on reservation events during the 1940s and 1950s (in particular, information on World War II and the Navajo-Hopi Act; see activities 5 and 6)
8. chalkboard, chalk

9. butcher paper for mural
10. paints, colored pens, crayons or other drawing medium for mural

Suggested Time

Allow at least one class period for activities 2–3 and 7–8, and two to four class periods for other activities.

Teaching Strategies and Activities

1. Review the vocabulary for Chapter Six, and ask students to read through the chapter. Divide their reading into subsections, if desired.
2. Develop worksheets to test students' comprehension of material in Chapter Six. Include the following questions on the worksheets:

   "What is erosion? How does it happen?"

   "Why did the federal government start the stock reduction program?"

   "Name at least one reason why the people did not like the stock reduction program."

   "Who were the code talkers? How did they help the allies in World War II?"

   "Why did people who came back from the war want new schools? What did they do about this?"

   "What was the Navajo-Hopi Act? When was it passed?"

   "Name at least one way the Navajos helped their neighbors in Dinétah, during the Spanish period, when the Anglo-Americans came, and today."
3. To illustrate how erosion occurs, follow the procedure below:
   a) Obtain a large glass tray. Fill it with ground soil from outdoors. Pack the soil in the tray, but not too firmly.
   b) Elevate the tray on one end and pour water *quickly* over it. Repeat this several times.
   c) Instruct students to observe what happens and ask:

      "Were did most of the water go?"

      "What happened after we poured water the second and third times?"

      "What do you think would happen to the soil after four or five times?"

      "If there was grass growing in the soil, would it wash away so fast?"

   Instruct students to write up the results of their experiment, including the following information:
   a) procedures we followed in the experiment
   b) what we observed in the experiment
   c) what the experiment showed us
4. Invite a community elder to class to discuss stock reduction and its effects, or allow students to interview a relative or other community member who experienced the stock reduction program. After the lecture or interview, ask students to write a short paper entitled, "Stock Reduction On the Reservation." Allow time for students to exchange their ideas and impressions in a class discussion.
5. Invite a code talker or other Navajo serviceman who served in World War II to class, and ask him/her to discuss experiences during and after the war. Take notes during the lecture (instruct students to take notes, too), and use these to generate discussion afterwards. Students should write a short report entitled, "Navajo Contributions to World War II;" post these on a bulletin board, hallway, or at the local chapter house.
6. Obtain several references on events of the 1940s and 1950s (see Reference Section), and bring these to class. Alternatively, allow students to conduct library research on this period of history. Divide the class into small groups and assign each a particular topic relating to the war, the

Navajo-Hopi Act and its consequences, and/or new reservation developments since 1950. Students should write a brief report and share their findings in a class discussion.

7. Review the material presented in Chapter One through Six, as necessary. On the chalkboard, help students list the changes that have occurred in Navajo society since "the beginning." Their lists should include several major events covered in each chapter in the book and any additional information acquired through interviews, lectures by resource people, and library research. For each item on the list, students should then indicate whether the change was caused primarily by an internal or external change agent. Finally, students should state for each item, how Navajos adapted to the change. Their chart should look something like the one below.

CHANGE: ITS CAUSES AND ITS EFFECTS

Event or Time Period, and Change That Occurred	Internal Change Agent?	External Change Agent?	How Navajos Adapted To the Change
1. Black World			
2. Blue World			
3. Yellow World			
4. White World			
5. In Dinétah a) Arrival of Four Clans b) Pueblos c) *etc., etc.*			
6. The Spaniards a) *etc., etc.*			
7. The Anglo-Americans a) *etc., etc.*			

8. As a concluding activity, ask students to list at least one contribution made by Navajos (e.g., fighting with Pueblos against Utes in Dinétah, fighting for the United States during World War II, etc.), for every event/time period on their chart. Students should then write a paper entitled, "Contributions of Navajos, Through Time." Post their papers on the bulletin board in the hallway, a school administrative office, or at the local chapter.

9. Allow students to present their papers from activity 8 in class. Initiate a discussion about the various contributions identified by students, and the ways in which other groups of people have contributed to Navajo society. Then help students create a mural which depicts each time period they have listed, the changes that occurred, and the cultural exchanges between Navajos and others during that period. Display the mural in a school hallway.

NOTES

REFERENCES

Chapter One

Some sources of maps:

- The Arizona and New Mexico State Highway Departments will usually supply a classroom with state maps for little cost when these are requested on official school stationery.
- U.S.G.S. maps are available through the U.S. Geological Survey, Branch of Distribution, Box 25286, Denver Federal Center, Denver, CO 80225, or any good map distributor. Sports goods stores often have a good supply of these topological maps.
- Full-color relief maps of individual states, the continental United States and other areas are available from The Educator's Choice, 1034 E. 9th Pl., Mesa, AZ 85203 (PH: 602-833-3392).

Sources on creation stories include:

- Beck, Peggy V. and Anna L. Walters. *The Sacred: Ways of Knowledge, Sources of Life.* Tsaile, AZ: Navajo Community College Press (1977).
- Callaway, Sydney M., Gary Witherspoon et al. *Grandfather Stories of the Navahos.* Rough Rock, AZ: Navajo Curriculum Center Press (1974).
- Clark, LaVerne Harrell. *They Sang For Horses: The Impact of the Horse on Navajo and Apache Folklore.* Tucson: University of Arizona Press (1966).
- O'Bryan, Aileen. *The Diné: Origin Myths of the Navaho Indians.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office (1956).
- Wyman, Leland C. *Blessingway, With Three Versions of the Myth Recorded and Translated by Father Berard Haile.* Tucson: University of Arizona Press (1970).
- Yazzie, Ethelou (ed.). *Navajo History Vol. I* (Second Ed.). Rough Rock, AZ: Navajo Curriculum Center Press (1982).

Chapter Two

A useful resource on anthropologists and the study of anthropology is:

- Fried, Morton H. *The Study of Anthropology.* New York, NY: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. (1972).

An excellent resource for its many maps and photographs as well as its content:

- Roessel, Robert A. *Dinétah, Navajo History Vol. II.* Rough Rock, AZ: Navajo Curriculum Center Press (1983).

Chapter Three

For information on wall maps, see references for Chapter One, above. In addition, an excellent map for the study of various Arizona Indian tribes is:

- *Polyconic Projection Map Showing the Indians of Arizona.* (Available through Hearne Brothers, First National Building, Detroit, MI 48226.)

A good general social studies book with an account of the "First Americans" and the coming of Columbus, is:

- Schomberg, Carl E. et al. *Many Americans — One Nation.* Oklahoma City: The Economy Co. (1982).

Resources on the Spanish period include:

- Brugge, David M. *Long Ago In Navajoland.* Window Rock, AZ: Navajo Tribal Museum (1965).
- Fergusson, Erna. *New Mexico: A Pageant of Three Peoples* (Second Ed.). Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press (1973).
- Forbes, Jack D. *Apache, Navaho, and Spaniard.* Norman: University of Oklahoma Press (1960).
- Rodock, Madeleine Turrell (ed.). *Adolph F. Bandelier's The Discovery of New Mexico by the Franciscan Monk, Friar Marcos de Niza in 1539.* Tucson: University of Arizona Press (198!).
- Spicer, Edward H. *Cycles of Conquest: The Impact of Spain, Mexico, and the United States on the Indians of the Southwest, 1533–1960.* Tucson: University of Arizona Press (1962).
- Underhill, Ruth. *The Navajos.* Norman: University of Oklahoma Press (1956).

Chapter Four

For maps of sites during the Anglo-American contact period, see references under Chapters One and Three, above. Other helpful resources for this chapter include:

- Brugge, David M. *Zarcillos Largos: Courageous Advocate of Peace.* Window Rock, AZ: Research Section, Navajo Parks and Recreation (1970).
- Brugge, David M. and J. Lee Correll. *The Story of the Navajo Treaties.* Window Rock, AZ: Research Section, Navajo Parks and Recreation (1971).
- Correll, J. Lee. *Sandoval — Traitor or Patriot?* Window Rock, AZ: Research Section, Navajo Parks and Recreation.
- Hoffman, Virginia. *Navajo Biographies Vol. I.* Rough Rock, AZ: Navajo Curriculum Center Press.
- Link, Martin (ed.). *The Navajo Treaty — 1868.* Las Vegas, NV: KC Publications (1968).
- Roessel, Robert A., Jr. *Pictorial History of the Navajo From 1860 to 1910.* Rough Rock, AZ: Navajo Curriculum Center Press (1980).
- Roessel, Ruth (ed.). *Navajo Stories of the Long Walk Period.* Tsaile, AZ: Navajo Community College Press (1973).
- Shepardson, Mary. *Navajo Ways In Government: A Study In Political Process.* Menasha, WI: American Anthropological Association Vol. 65, No. 3, Part 2 (1963).
- Williams, Aubrey W., Jr. *Navajo Political Process.* Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press.

Chapter Five

Helpful references for this chapter are:

- Bingham, Sam and Janet Bingham. *Navajo Chapter Government Handbook.* Rock Point, AZ: Rock Point Community School (1976).
- Bingham, Sam and Janet Bingham (eds.) *Between Sacred Mountains.* Rock Foint, AZ: Rock Point Community School (1982).
- Johnson, Broderick and Virginia Hoffman. *Navajo Biographies Vol. II.* Rough Rock, AZ: Navajo Curriculum Center Press (1978).
- Link, Martin A. (ed.). *Navajo: A Century of Progress 1868–1968.* Window Rock, AZ: Navajo Tribe (1968).
- Young, Robert W. *A Political History of the Navajo Tribe.* Tsaile, AZ: Navajo Community College Press (1978).

Two especially useful books for their many maps are:

- Correll, J. Lee and Alfred Dehiya. *Anatomy of the Navajo Indian Reservation: How It Grew* (Revised Ed.). Window Rock, AZ: Navajo Nation (1978).
- Goodman, James M. *The Navajo Atlas: Environments, Resources, People, and History of the Dine Bikéyah*. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press (1982).

Chapter Six

Resources for this chapter include:

- Begay, Keats et al. *Navajos and World War II*. Tsaile, AZ: Navajo Community College Press (1977).
- Roessel, Ruth and Broderick H. Johnson (comps.). *Navajo Livestock Reduction: A National Disgrace*. Tsaile, AZ: Navajo Community College Press (1974).
- Young, Robert W. *Navajo Yearbook*. Window Rock, AZ: The Navajo Tribe (1961).

Comprehensive

A good overall resource listing of Navajo curriculum materials is:

- McCarty, T. L., et al. *A Bibliography of Navajo and Native American Teaching Materials*. Rough Rock, AZ: Navajo Curriculum Center Press (1983).